DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 175 994 CE 016 280

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TITLE Job Training for Low Income Women: The Need for Change.
INSTITUTION Steiger, Fink, and Kosecoff, Inc., McLean, Va.
SPONS AGENCY Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Washington, D.C. Secretary's Advisory Committee on the Rights and Responsibilities of Women.
PUB DATE 13 Dec 76
NOTE 158p.; Not available in paper copy due to thin type

EDRS PRICE MF01 Plus Postage. PC Not Available from EDRS.
DESCRIPTORS Affirmative Action; Employment Problems; *Equal Opportunities (Jobs); *Federal Programs; *Income; *Job Training; Program Effectiveness; Salaries; *Sex Discrimination; Sex Fairness; *Working Women

ABSTRACT

This document presents the conclusions and recommendations of a study conducted to explain the inequalities faced by low-income women in job training, employment, and earnings. The study explored the dimensions of the problems such women face, possible solutions, and the extent to which a group of Health Education and Welfare (HEW) and HEW-related programs address or fail to address those solutions. This document is divided into two major sections. Section 1 presents the conclusions and recommendations and a summary of the report. A brief description of nine federal programs which have potential for helping low income women are also included in this section. Section 2 reports the study in more detail. It provides a discussion of the issues involved and information from the assessment of selected programs with potential for assisting low-income women to increase their earning power. Conclusions and recommendations are also included in section 2. The following information is appended: a discussion of women in non-traditional jobs; selected budget data on several federal programs included in this study; a glossary of terms; and an explanation of vocational-technical education categories. (BM)

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Job Training for Low Income Women:

The Need for Change

Final Report

December 13, 1976

By

JoAnn M. Steiger
and
Eleanor S. Szanton

Prepared for:

The Secretary's Advisory Committee
on the
Rights and Responsibilities of Women

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CE 016 280

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I. SUMMARY OF THE REPORT

The Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare's Advisory Committee on the Rights and Responsibilities of Women, as part of its continuing concern for the inequalities faced by women in job training, employment, and earnings, has mandated the following study of the particular problems faced by women with low incomes. The study explores the dimensions of the problems such women face, possible solutions, and the extent to which a group of HEW and HEW-related programs address or fail to address those solutions. Whereas government studies of this sort commonly analyze the effects of one program on many diverse groups, the present study reverses the process and looks at a group of programs from the perspective of one segment of the population--from the consumer's point of view.

A. Conclusions and Recommendations.

1. General Recommendations.

a. The design of data collection and analysis systems should be modified so that the plight of low income women can be better understood. Data should be gathered by sex-by-income as well as by sex-by-race.

b. Programs dealing with low income women should gather information in a way that allows distinct subgroups of low income women--e.g. highly educated vs. poorly educated; long-term poor vs. temporarily poor--to be analyzed separately.

c. (1) Federal programs should redefine "success" in employment-related programs. The measure of success should take into account both starting wage level and potential future for advancement.

(2) Job training and job placement programs should be rewarded for the quality of placements, and for the degree of difficulty of the placement (to prevent "creaming"--that is, placing only the clients who are easiest to place.)

d. Evaluations of job training and placement should be required to have a minimum of two years--and preferably five years--of follow-up data on program participants. Federal money should be invested in fewer but longer-term evaluations rather than in a large number of potentially misleading evaluations which investigate only first placements or first six months post-program participant experience.

e. Local prime sponsors, Work Incentive Program offices, vocational education agencies and grantees should be required to report program data to be consistent with the above listed objectives. States should be held fully accountable for complete and accurate reporting of data.

f. Government employees who deal with job training and placement programs should be required to participate in training programs to sensitize them to the special needs and problems of low income women.

g. Federal officials should actively monitor local job training and placement programs to assure compliance with legislation prohibiting sex and race discrimination.

h. Studies of low income women should be a priority target for discretionary research funds in programs dealing with employment, job training, apprenticeship, vocational education and career education.

i. Demonstration projects which deal with training low income women for placing them in traditionally male jobs that pay higher wages and provide more potential for advancement than traditionally female jobs should be a priority target for funding by discretionary programs.

j. Communicating information about successful programs which place low income women in non-traditional jobs should be a high priority for dissemination funds.

2. Recommendations for Specific Programs.

a. Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education (Office of Education): The Bureau should take a forceful leadership role in assisting state and local education agencies in fulfilling the spirit and the letter of the anti-sex stereotyping provisions of the new vocational education law.

b. Office of Career Education (Office of Education): Career Education personnel should continue and expand their efforts to foster a concern with problems of sex stereotyping among state and local educators.

c. Education and Work Program and Women's Research Program (National Institute of Education): should continue their emphasis on obstacles for employment and advancement of women and increase their focus on low income women as a special target group.

d. Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training (Department of Labor): should modify the federal regulations for apprenticeship programs so that women as well as minority group members will be considered as a group requiring goals and timetables for increased participation in apprenticeship programs.

e. Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training (Department of Labor): should eliminate age restrictions for apprenticeship programs.

f. Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) (Department of Labor): should publish and disseminate a Technical Assistance Guide (TAG) for local prime sponsors for training women in non-traditional jobs. The booklet should include information, including case studies, of the lessons learned from successful demonstration programs for placing women in non-traditional jobs.

g. Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA): should immediately revoke its new rule that local prime sponsors will be measured for success in terms of lowest cost per placement in the private sector. This rule forces prime sponsors to ignore the neediest clients.

h. Comprehensive Employment and Training Act Planning Councils: should be required to have as members women who are informed advocates of increased opportunities for women.

i. The National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee (the joint HEW-Labor committee established by the vocational education section of the Education Amendments of 1976):

(1) should include as its members persons who are knowledgeable about and sensitive to the special problems of low income women, and

(2) should include as a priority gathering and making available information on low income women to all relevant programs in both agencies at the federal, state and local level.

j. Each State Occupational Information Coordinating Committee:

(1) include in its membership persons who are knowledgeable about and sensitive to the special problems of low income women, and

(2) should include as a priority gathering and making available information on low income women to all relevant programs at the state and local level.

k. The Coordinating Committee on Research in Vocational Education:

(1) should include in its membership persons who are knowledgeable about and sensitive to the special problems of low income women, and

(2) should include as a priority, increasing the amount of research devoted to the needs of this target group.

l. The Work Incentive Program (Department of Labor and Health, Education and Welfare): The legislative mandate of WIN should be revised in the following ways:

(1) training should be re-emphasized, specifically training that would allow women to reach beyond traditional, low paying, sex stereotyped jobs. The training should be provided either directly through WIN or through systematic coordination of WIN with CETA and vocational education programs;

(2) the priority given in the law to Aid to Families with Dependent Children fathers, requiring that fathers' needs for training be met before mothers' needs are considered, should be revoked so that both sexes have equal access to training opportunities.

3. Recommendation Concerning Structural Change.

The Committee has made the above recommendations in view of the current structure of the Departments of Health, Education and Welfare and Labor. However, in reviewing the programs covered in this paper, the Committee has concluded that the needs of low income women for job training and placement that makes a real contribution to improving their lot and making them self-supporting will not be fully served until functions now filled by several separate agencies and programs are integrated into a single, coherent entity.

More specifically, the vocational training programs of our schools and colleges (at least insofar as they are part of a federal program), the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act training programs, the Work Incentive Program placement activities, and the various smaller programs related to these areas should be structurally linked so that one agency, one public official, can be held accountable for their integration and coordination.

B. Summary of Report.

1. Low income women: Who are they?

Although the fact seems almost to have escaped the notice of the federal government and the nation as a whole, women are more

likely to be victims of poverty than their male counterparts, and statistics indicate that for women a low income is likely to be accompanied by a painful array of ancillary problems that severely aggravate their condition. In 1974, the most recent year for which Census Bureau figures are available, 9,371,000 females lived in poverty in the United States. Of this total, more than half were between the ages of 22 and 59, potentially their prime working years. Of these, 3.3 million were white; 1.6 million were non-white. Low income women in this age group constituted 10 percent of all women. By contrast, only 2,850,000 men aged 22 to 59 were classified as living in poverty in 1974, and they comprised only 6 percent of their age group. Further, low income women in this country are very likely to be widowed, divorced, separated or otherwise compelled to live without a present husband's income even though there is also a strong probability that a low income

woman will be responsible for supporting not only herself but children as well. Of the 2,351,000 families headed by low income women in 1974, 96 percent had children under age 18. And only 21 percent of female family heads received regular child support payments from their children's father.

2. Their earning ability is limited.

Not only are women more likely to be poor than men, and to have the additional burden of supporting children, but they suffer from a large and increasing earnings gap: median income for men in 1975 was $8,853 and for women was $3,385. Less than 30 percent of all men earned under $5,000 in 1974, but 62 percent of women workers earned less than that.

3. Why are women earning so little?

All women, but especially those with low incomes, are heavily concentrated in a relatively small number of low-paying, low-status occupations which characteristically offer little opportunity for advancement into better-paying, higher status jobs. This is largely a result of childhood and school-age factors which influence girls to follow traditional channels of education, development and career aspiration. Effects of the early channeling are reinforced by employers' reluctance to invest in training for women because of the widespread myth that women are more likely than men to quit in mid-career. (Actually, where jobs are comparable, the quit rate is almost the same.) Lack of union participation and inadequacy of available child care also contribute to the concentration of women in undesireable job slots.

External factors are buttressed by factors internal to women, such as reluctance to migrate in search of better jobs, fear

of pioneering in new career areas, disproportionate incidence of health problems, especially among poor women, and a general--and tragic--scaling down of aspirations to meet low expectations. (See pages 20-34 of the Final Report for more detailed discussion of the status of low income women.)

4. The Government has not focused on low income women.

Surprisingly, in view of the size of the problem, the federal government seems scarcely to have focused on low income women as a group at all. Almost no statistical reports isolate them. Instead they are lumped in with "women," those who are "economically disadvantaged," or "minorities." What statistics do exist tend to understate the true dimensions of the problem; black women, for example, often are compared only with black men instead of with white male workers also, with the result that earnings disparities are understated. The fact that low income women are almost invisible in statistical terms suggests that they are all but unseen programatically as well--a suggestion that seems borne out by examination of particular federal programs.

The federal response to low income women's needs is further hampered by failure to agree on goals and definitions of success for job development and training programs. The lack of agreed-upon goals contributes to lack of continuity in programs, to inefficient allocation of limited resources, and failure of different programs to supplement or reinforce one another.

5. How well are low income women being served?

This study limits itself to assessing federal programs affecting low income women in terms of two questions:

1) To what extent are low income women being served at all by the programs under review? and

2) To what extent are low income women trained and assisted

in obtaining work in fields new to them and above their previous ability or aspiration levels? With what results?

6. Does training matter? A review of the literature.

While there is general agreement that manpower training programs and similar educational efforts yield non-economic benefits to participants in terms of increased feelings of self-worth, independence, etc., these gains are so difficult to measure and compare among diverse individuals that virtually all studies confine themselves to comparing economic gains as a device for measuring program effects. But within this parameter there is a problem: measurements are normally made soon after a participant has left a job training or other program so that there is inadequate data on long-term effects of such programs as compared to simple placement programs.

Nevertheless, the literature broadly supports the conclusion that, whatever the merits of training for men, it makes a substantial difference for women: they are more likely to be placed in jobs after training, and their earnings are likely to be significantly higher. Several studies indicate further that skills and classroom as well as on-the-job training programs to date have had significantly greater effects for female participants than other kinds of Training, such as work experience and summer youth programs. However, the studies do not foreclose use of the latter type of program, which holds promise under appropriate conditions. (See pages 42-45 and 79-80 of the Final Report for more detailed documented discussion of this subject.)

7. Selected federal programs with potential for helping low income women.

Of the programs to be examined, five are within the Education Division of HEW: the Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education (BOAE), the Office of Career Education, the Women's Educational

Equity Act (WEEA) all in the Office of Education; the National Institute of Education (NIE), and the Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education (FIPSE). Two programs with HEW links are also reviewed: the Work Incentive program (WIN), administered jointly by HEW and the Department of Labor, and the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) administered by the Labor Department but with HEW training links.

8. Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education (BOAE): Primarily a disbursement agency which funnels some $700 million a year in federal aid for vocational training and basic adult education to states for use at their discretion, BOAE nevertheless has several avenues for influencing state policy-makers. Recently the agency has been under pressure to increase its attention to women's problems--with mixed results thus far. Women's concerns have been raised on the agency's list of priorities. Increased attention to sex bias and stereotyping is being encouraged in several ways, although only a tiny fraction of the Bureau's discretionary spending for research projects is concerned with women at all, much less with low income women. Demonstration funds have been more sensitive to women's issues.

It seems the Bureau's Division of Vocational and Technical Education does not serve a large number of low income people, though the statistical data are not available. The Bureau is serving a large number of girls, however. The problem is that the distribution of the girls is very uneven, depending on the program. For example, women comprise 84.7 percent of all students in consumer and homemaking courses and 9.5 percent of all trainees in vocational agriculture. The pattern for minority women is even more extreme. Minority women make up about 1 percent of those in

vocational agriculture and 2 percent of students in technical occupations. These figures have all moved slightly toward the mean in the past three years, and the new federal vocational education law (PL 94-482) in fact specifically requires that a number of steps be taken to overcome sex bias and sex stereotyping in vocational education programs.

The Adult Education program does indeed serve low income women. They make up 57 percent of its participants. However, its 822,469 participants are only 3 percent of the population with less than eighth grade education. Job training is not a top priority for Adult Education programs and, in fact, they do not clearly lead to better job options for women. Only 27.5 percent of the program's participants (including those who dropped out) got a better job or went on to other training or education as a result of the program.

No post-training earnings comparison data is collected by the agency. (See pages 47-64 of the Final Report for a detailed discussion of BOAE's programs).

9. Office of Career Education: The Office of Career Education, created in 1974 to infuse career awareness into school curricula, serves children of all socioeconomic levels and both sexes. Thus its ability to target efforts on low income women is limited. It is discussed, however, since its mission has potential to affect career thinking of low income girls. The efforts of the Office in this direction is focused almost entirely on technical assistance and provision of resources for its state career education directors and grantees in eliminating sex bias and sex stereotyping from programs.

Beyond this, very few grants have gone specifically to projects which seek to eliminate sex bias. A few others have been directed to urban poor and/or minority children, though not girls in particular. The effects of its programs on low income girls thus remains to be seen. (See pages 65-66 of the Final Report).

10. Women's Educational Equity Act (WEEA): This program was created in 1974 to spearhead the elimination of sex bias in federally supported education programs. This past year the staff had concentrated in developing grant procedures and funding the first round of demonstration programs mandated by the law. Since its statutory mandate is women in general its grants have not focused on low income women. Even so, about one-quarter of its grants will directly affect this group. (See pages 66-67 of the Report.)

11. National Institute of Education (NIE): Created in 1972 to support research and development

in education, NIE has two units which focus at least partially on the needs of women: the Education and Work Group and the Women's Research Program. At first these units touched on the particular needs of low income women only tangentially. However, they have recently become more aware of low income women as a group. Beyond this, both units have funded some particularly illuminating basic research on the interaction between female aspirations and expectations, as reinforced by society. By its own calculation, NIE spends approximately 2.6 percent of its budget on research into the educational and occupational needs of women in general. But only a portion of this deals directly with problems of low income women. Looking only at programs specifically geared to low income or minority women and girls, the Institute will have spent approximately 1.7 percent of its total program budget on low income females between 1973 and 1978, though the proportion will have been increasing during the period. (See pages 67-71 of the Final Report.)

12. Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education (FIPSE): Established in 1972 along with NIE, the Fund is intended to reform and improve the education of adults beyond high school. Since by statute its focus is on developing innovative institutional models, it has never solicited proposals for the benefit of selected target groups. However, women and the disadvantaged, who have traditionally been poorly served by existing institutions, have been beneficiaries of FIPSE's programs to some degree. It is estimated that in fiscal year 1976 about 10 percent of the Fund's budget ($1.1 million out of $11.5 million) directly benefited low income women. (See pages 71-3 of the Final Report for a more detailed discussion of individual programs.)

13. Work Incentive Program (WIN): As originally designed in the 1967 amendments to the Social Security Act, the WIN program probably came closer than any other federal effort to making the basic vocational needs of low income women a primary target. Unfortunately, it has shifted in the 1970's from a training and job-development program to a massive job-placement mechanism. As a result, WIN's long term effectiveness in improving the economic condition of poor women on welfare appears to have been drastically curtailed. Only 4.8 percent of AFDC participants receive training in manpower programs, and preference is given in these to unemployed fathers. While enormous numbers of low income women are placed in jobs, only a small percentage of these are actually removed from welfare rolls, and long-term employment also appears to be rare. The government may in reality be operating a "revolving door." The program has

made some effort to broaden the range of employment possibilities for its participants. However, these are few and small in scope. (See pages 75-80 of the Final Report.)

14. Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA): Conceived as a comprehensive mechanism for aiding local vocational training and job development programs CETA distributes some $2 billion per year to states and localities. Programs are broadly oriented toward "the unemployed, the underemployed and the disadvantaged." Reports suggest that CETA serves a relatively large proportion of women and economically disadvantaged persons, though some doubt has been cast on the accuracy of local reports. There is less information as to what percent of economically disadvantaged people are women and what percent of those are in successful job training programs. Many low income girls or women seem to be in summer work experience programs with no long term prospects. Others are trained within a very narrow range of traditional jobs. In sum, though the literature suggests that low income women may be more responsive to job training and more dependent on it for success than men, the statistics suggest that they are receiving very little of it from this or any other government program. (See pages 81-88 of Report.)

15. Related labor programs: While much smaller than CETA or WIN, the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training (BAT) and the Office of National Programs' Apprenticeship Outreach Program (AOP) have substantial potential for brightening the work horizons of women. The Bureau is beginning to focus on the need for change in its traditional exclusion of women from many apprenticeship programs. However, it has a long way to go. Only 1 percent of Bureau-sponsored apprenticeships are held by women. The Apprenticeship Outreach Program is actively promoting entry of women into apprenticeship positions, much as it has done with minorities in general. In the course of its work, it has supported some excellent model programs around the country. It has also worked with civil rights groups to expand minority placement activities to include women. (See pages 89-94 and Appendix A, "Women in Non-Traditional Jobs," of the Final Report.).

In conclusion, low income women are concentrated in a narrow range of traditional, low-paying jobs. They are not being helped out of this predicament by the programs reviewed above either because the programs are designed for other purposes or because they have been insufficiently sensitive to the needs and potential of low income women. The Secretary's Advisory Committee on the Rights and Responsibilites of Women believes that the time for change is long overdue and that HEW can lead the way.

II. JOB TRAINING FOR LOW INCOME WOMEN: THE NEED FOR CHANGE

A. Introduction

The Advisory Committee of the Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare on the Rights and Responsibilities of Women, established in 1972, has been concerned for several years about the inequities faced by women in job training, employment, and earnings. Its education subcommittee has examined in detail the problem of discrimination against women in vocational education and has reported its findings in The Vocational Preparation of Women, published in July 1975. The recommendations contained in that report and endorsed by the Committee, were largely incorporated into amendments to the Vocational Education Act of 1963 submitted by the Administration to Congress in the fall of 1975 and included in the Education Amendments of 1976.

As part of its larger concern, the Committee has recognized the particular problems faced by low income women in the fields of education, job training, and placement. Thus it has mandated the following study--to examine the dimensions of the problem, explore possible solutions, and assess the degree to which HEW and HEW-related programs are contributing to these solutions rather than to further aggravation of the problem.

In seeking to identify who low income women are and how well their interests are being met by federal programs, this study will reverse the usual process of government evaluation. Rather than analyzing the effect of one program on many different segments of the population, it will look closely at one segment of the

population--low income women--and evaluate the impact of several different programs on that segment. There are two reasons for this approach. First, it permits one to look at the government from the perspective of a group of citizens--which, in fact, ought to be the norm, since governments are created to serve citizens, rather than the other way around. Second, this procedure helps avoid the easy and all-too-common assumption that, while the particular government program being studied is visibly inadequate, there are doubtless others performing the needed function well. Thus we will focus on low income women. All of the programs reviewed have the potential for assisting this population although, for a variety of reasons (some inherent in their establishing legislation and some reflecting administrative decisions), many do not in fact deliver all they could to this target group.

B. The Issues

1. Who are Low Income Women and What is Their Situation?

a. They are many.

In 1974, the most recent year for which Census Bureau data are available,[1] 9,371,000 women lived in poverty in the United States.

[1] Figures for the data on this part come from Bureau of the Census, Characteristics of the Population Below Poverty Level: 1974, p. 35, p. 78, p. 108. 1974 is the most recent year for which the Census Bureau has extensive and detailed data on income. In this paper, we use the Census Bureau definition of official poverty, based on size of family and adjusted with consumer prices. In 1974 it was $5,038 for a family of four. It has since been raised in 1976 to $5,500 for a non-farm family of four in the Continental United States. There is much that is unsatisfactory about this definition, and the propriety of the definition is currently under review. (See U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, The Measure of Poverty, A Report to Congress, April 1976.) However the present official definition will be used for the purposes of this paper.

More than half of them, 4,900,000, were between the ages of 22 and 59, the prime working years, and they comprised almost 10 percent of all women in this age group. About 3.3 million of the nation's poverty-level women were white, 1.6 million of them non-white, in 1974. The full import of these figures, and how starkly they contrast with most Americans' vision of their country, can perhaps be seen more clearly if one recalls that only 2.85 million men aged 22 to 59 were living in poverty in 1974 and that they represented only six percent of their age group.

b. <u>They are often without husband.</u>

Of the nearly 6 million low income women aged 20 to 64,

2,124,000 were living with their husbands,
191,000 had absent husbands,
835,000 were widowed,
825,000 were divorced,
948,000 were separated from their husbands, and
1,076,000 had never married.

Taken together, low income women aged 20 to 64 who live without benefit of a present husband's earnings total 3,875,000--or almost two-thirds of all women in this age/income range. To some extent these figures reflect the continuance of the traditional pattern of women depending on their husbands for financial well-being; any woman in this society who loses her husband is likely to be thrust automatically into financial straits as a result. Another pattern is also at work, however: in the crippling world of poverty, marriage and family structures often are among the first to break down, so that a married woman living in a low income situation is

likely to see her problems aggravated by dissolution of the marriage as a result of the poverty.

c. They have children to support.

One consequence of the latter syndrome is that low income women tend not only to be living without husbands, but also to be living with children who must be supported.[2] As of 1974, 2,351,000 families were headed by low income women, 96 percent of whom had children under age 18.[3] This reflects the enormous increase in the growth rate of female-headed families generally, as illustrated in Fig. 1. The implication for children is predictable: 5,387,000 children live in impoverished families headed by women. The correlation between children in poverty and children in female-headed families is strong: over half of all children in families headed by women are poor, and over half of all children who are poor live in female-headed families.[4]

The median income of these families in 1974 was less than half that of husband-wife families: $6,400 as compared with $13,800.[5] The unemployment rate for female heads of families with children under 18 was 24.2 percent.[6] Nor can female family heads count on support from absent husbands. A 1975 survey commissioned by the

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[2]One question increasingly raised is the need to clarify the confusion between wages as reward for work vs. income for family. (See Carolyn Shaw Bell, "Should Every Job Support a Family?" The Public Interest, No. 40, summer 1975.) Female-headed families have suffered from this confusion.

[3]Heather L. Ross and Isabel V. Sawhill, Time of Transition: The Growth of Families Headed by Women (Washington, D. C., The Urban Institute, 1975), p. 186.

[4]Characteristics of the Population, op. cit., pp. 88 and 108.

[5]Beverly Johnson McEaddy, "Women Who Head Families," Monthly Labor Review, June 1976, p. 7.

[6]Ibid., p. 7.

National Commission on the Observance of International Women's Year found that of every 100 divorced mothers, only 21 collected regular child support payments.[7] More alarming in some ways than these statistics is the growth rate associated with them: between 1970 and 1974 alone, the number of poor families headed by women increased 21 percent, whereas the number of poor families headed by men declined 17 percent.[8] The growth rate of families with children headed by minority women is even more dramatic than that for the low income population as a whole. Whereas the proportion of all low income families with children under 18 that were headed by women rose from 25 percent to 48 percent between 1960 and 1973, it climbed from 35 percent to 71 percent for non-white families during the same period.[9] As a result, the median income for non-white families headed by women was well below the poverty line.[10]

In sum, the statistics demonstrate that poverty has a special meaning for women. They are more likely to be its victims than their male counterparts--with the probability of an added burden, dependent children. And faced with poverty, what resources do women have to fall back on? The answer does not appear to brighten the picture.

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[7]Report of the National Commission on the Observance of International Women's Year. "To Form a More Perfect Union," Justice for American Women (Washington, D. C., 1976), p. 16.

[8]McEaddy, op. cit., p. 7.

[9]Ross and Sawhill, op. cit., p. 68.

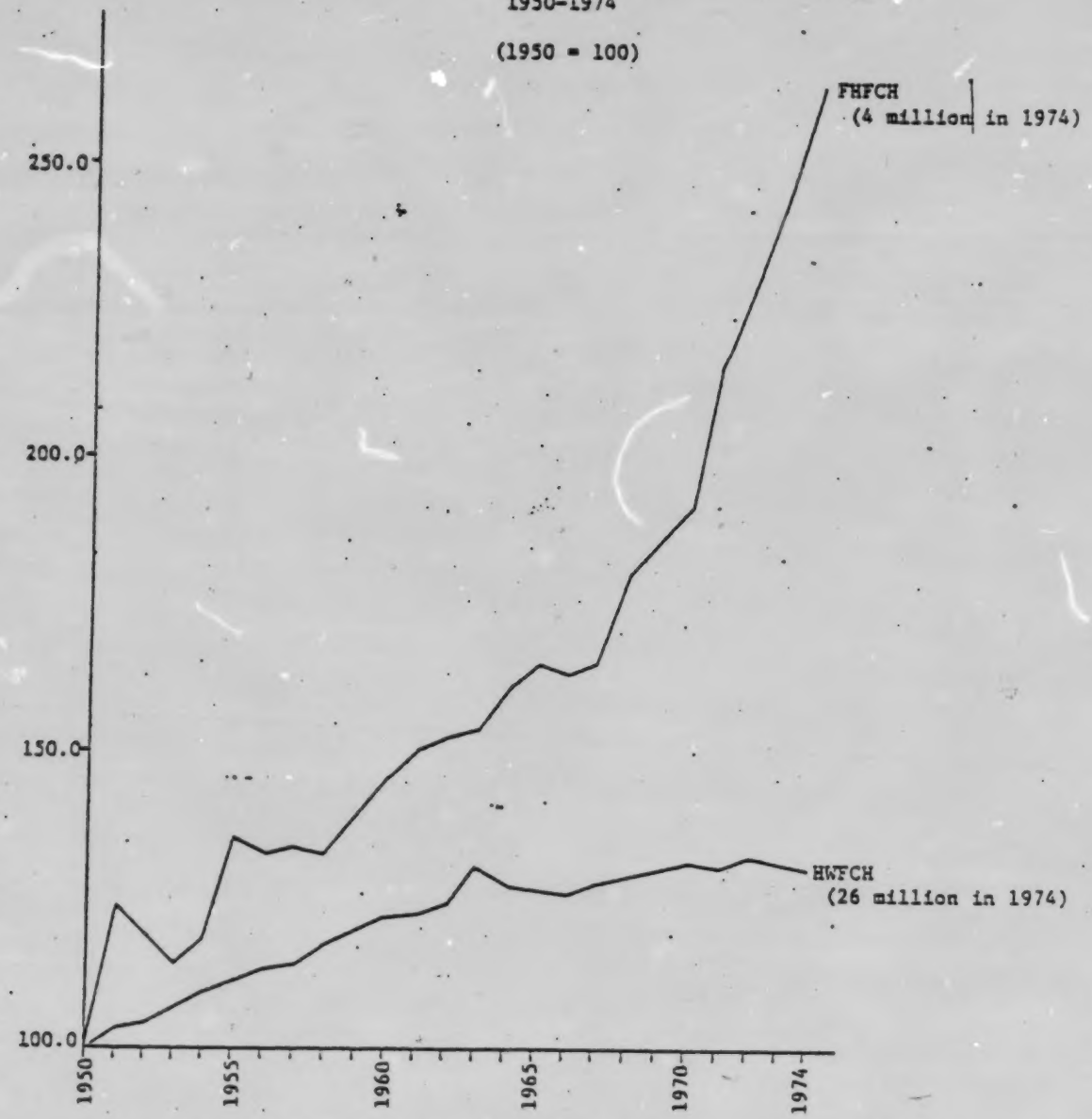
[10]U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1975 Handbook of Women Workers, Bulletin No. 297, Washington, D. C., p. 127ff.

FIGURE 1

GROWTH OF FEMALE-HEADED FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN (FHFCH) AND HUSBAND-WIFE FAMILIES WITH CHILDREN (HWFCH)

1950-1974

(1950 = 100)



Source: Current Population Reports, Series P-20, "Household and Family Characteristics," Washington, D.C.: U.S. Bureau of the Census.

d. Yet their ability to earn is limited.

In 1975, the median income for men was $8,853. For women that year the median was $3,385.[11] Those numbers alone come close to telling the story, but there are more. Just under 30 percent of men in the labor force earned less than $5,000 a year in 1974, whereas 62 percent of all working women earned less than that. A study which compared the incomes earned by women in their 400 most common occupations with those of men in their 400 most common occupations found that only 10 percent of the men's occupations paid men a median income as low as that paid to women in 50 percent of their jobs.[12] Nor can the earnings gap be more than partially explained by differences in background or job experience. When education and length of time on the job are held constant, women earn 33 percent less than men.[13] When type of occupation is held constant as well, women still earn 12 percent less than their male counterparts. And while they may start on a job earning 85 percent of what men are paid, they will be earning only 50 percent of male counterparts' earnings by the time the women reach their middle years.

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[11] U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports on Consumer Income, Series P-60, No. 103, September 1976, Tables 8 and 9. This figure is for all workers including all part-time, part-year workers. Many women do not work full-time, full-year. If one compares full-time, full-year salaries of men and women, they are $13,144 for men in 1975 and $7,719 for women.

[12] Dixie Somers, "Occupational Rankings of Men and Women by Earnings," Monthly Labor Review, Vol 97, No. 8, August 1974, p. 50.

[13] Patricia Sexton, Women and Work (1976). Draft of a paper prepared for the Office of Program Evaluation and Research, U.S. Department of Labor, p. 11.

e. And it is getting worse.

More troubling, the earnings gap seems to be widening even in the face of recent legal and governmental counter pressures. Since 1956, median income of full-time, year-round female workers has dropped from 63 percent of men's earnings to 57 percent. And this deterioration relative to the earnings of men has occurred in all major occupational groupings, among professionals as well as service and sales workers. The disparity is perhaps most ironic in the field containing enormous numbers of women, clerical work: whereas, in 1956 female clerical workers earned 72 percent as much as male clerical workers, by 1973 they were earning only 61 percent as much.[14] To some extent, the tendency of the earnings gap to grow is attributable to the recent large influx into the labor market of women who lacked the experience and qualifications needed to command high salaries; but this is by no means the whole answer. And regardless of the causes, the painful fact of the gap remains: it is estimated that one-half of all poor families would escape from poverty if female heads of families and working wives were paid wages comparable to men's.[15]

The unemployment situation has also deteriorated for women in comparison to men. In 1947 the unemployment rate for women was 0.3 percent less than that for men. By 1974 the unemployment rate for women was more than 30 percent larger than the rate for men.[16]

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[14] U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1975 Handbook of Women Workers, op. cit., pp. 130 and 131.

[15] Sexton, op. cit., p. 13, quoting Survey Research Center, Five Thousand American Families, 1974.

[16] U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1975 Handbook of Women Workers, op. cit., p. 65.

Minority and young women were particularly hard hit. For example, the unemployment rate for minority girls in the 18 and 19 year old age group has climbed to 38.3 percent from 24.5 percent in 15 years; it was more than seven times the national unemployment rate for all workers in 1974.[17]

f. Why are women earning so little?

What accounts for the stark disparity between the earnings and employment of the nation's working women and their more fortunate male colleagues? For all women, but especially for low income women, by far the largest element in the answer is the fact that women are concentrated in a relatively small number of low-paying, low-status occupations with little opportunity to improve their lot. One way of looking at this phenomenon is in terms of the so-called "primary" and "secondary" job markets. In the primary market are jobs with relatively high pay, jobs that are much sought after, offer security, and typically are in the professions and industry. Jobs in the secondary market have low pay, low status, high turnover, and generally lie in the service occupations.[18] Viewed in this light, low income women, if they are employed at all, are concentrated in a relatively small number of occupations in the secondary labor market. Further, there are seldom any natural career ladders from secondary market jobs to positions in the

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[17] Ibid., p. 72.

[18] For a more thorough discussion of the dual labor market theory as it applies to women, see Sexton, op. cit., pp. 1-84.

primary market, so that low income women--indeed virtually all women--tend to remain a separate but unequal labor pool.

g. Their range of opportunities is limited.

The demographic data seem to fit this analysis. In 1970, for example, 50 percent of all women workers were to be found in only 17 occupations; women made up 78 percent of all clerical workers, only 5 percent of all craft workers. Men, in contrast, were much more broadly spread through the range of possible occupations; one would have to add together all the men working in 63 different occupations to account for 50 percent of the entire male labor force.[19] There is also a very close correlation between jobs that are female-intensive and those with low pay scales. One analysis states:

> In January 1973, most industries paying average weekly earnings of less than $100/week were female-intensive. Several were paying under $90/week...while the average weekly paycheck of all industries averaged $138.[20]

In 1974 the average salary for all workers in manufacturing was $176/week and construction workers earned $249/week. The average salary for female-intensive retail trade workers was only $101/week.[21]

h. Why are they concentrated in so few jobs?

There appear to be several reasons for the concentration of women in low-paying jobs. First, as more and more evidence indicates,

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[19] JoAnn Steiger and Sara Cooper, The Vocational Preparation of Women: Report and Recommendations of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare Secretary's Advisory Committee on Rights and Responsibilities of Women (SACRRW) (Washington, D. C., U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1975), pp. 18-19.

[20] Elizabeth Waldman and Beverly J. McEaddy, "Where Women Work--An Analysis by Industry and Occupations," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 97, No. 5, May 1974, p. 10.

[21] U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Handbook of Labor Statistics, 1975, Table 102.

sex role differentiation at an early age tends to push girls toward certain traditional occupations. This differentiation, beginning at home, usually is reinforced by school counseling and vocational education programs which appear to channel boys and girls into different streams.[22] The historical attitude of educators is reflected in the following statement quoted from a report of the National Association of Secondary School Principals:

> Programs should be available for girls interested in developing skills in typing, stenography, the use of clerical machines or home economics.... For boys, depending on the community, trade and industrial programs should be available.[23]

When they leave school, men and women usually are aimed in different directions by employment and job development agencies. We will discuss those connected with the programs on which this report focuses later, but at least brief attention should be given at this point to the Federal-State Employment Service, which is a major source of jobs for middle and low income workers. This Service maintains 2,400 local offices where applicants are counseled and tested, job opportunities are developed, and qualified applicants are referred to openings. The Employment Service is a major referral source for participants in government training and manpower programs. In the past, the Service has kept no records indicating types of placement in relation to the sex of workers, but it appears that the Service followed the pattern prevailing in the labor

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[22] Steiger and Cooper, op. cit., pp. 34-38.

[23] James B. Conant, Chairman of a Committee of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, The Comprehensive High School (New York, McGraw Hill, 1967), pp. 58 and 59.

market generally. It should be noted that since 1974, as a result of pressure from women's groups, the Service has established a number of procedures which have begun to widen the range of job opportunities offered to low income women.[24]

i. They get little job training.

Another barrier between low income women and jobs in the primary market is the historical reluctance of employers to invest in training and orientation that would move women up career ladders in a significant way because of fear the women will quit before the employer's efforts have been repaid. Typically, this has been a self-fulfilling prophecy. Women in general do indeed quit at higher rates than men, but this is primarily because women have been concentrated in less desirable jobs than men. If one compares the quit rates for men with those of women in comparable jobs, one finds they are very similar.[25]

j. They are less unionized.

Another element of the problem is that women generally have been less heavily unionized than men. Whereas 27 percent of all males in the labor force were unionized as of 1970, only 10.3 percent of female workers belonged to unions.[26] The significance

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[24] Sexton, op. cit., pp. 202-205.

[25] Ibid., pp. 29-30. See also U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1975 Handbook of Women Workers, op. cit., pp. 60-63. The fact that boring jobs with no compensating pay have a high quit rate for both men and women is a problem beyond the scope of this paper.

[26] U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, The Challence Ahead: Equal Opportunity in Referral Unions (Washington, D. C., May 1976), pp. 5-8.

of this is that median earnings for unionized women were 70 percent higher than the median earnings of their non-union female colleagues.[27] Where women have belonged to unions, even in large numbers, they have seldom attained positions of power that would have enabled them to help other female workers.[28]

Lack of adequate child care facilities also stands between some women, especially low income women who cannot afford fee-for-care services, and the pursuit of desirable but demanding jobs.[29]

As was discussed above, low income women are frequently single parents of young children. Even if these women were better trained and did not face discrimination in the job market, they could still be prevented from working by a lack of adequate child care arrangements.

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[27] Edna E. Raphael, "Working Women and Their Membership in Labor Unions," Monthly Labor Review, Vol. 97, No. 5, May 1974, p. 27.

[28] U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, op. cit., p. 32.

[29] Bradley R. Schiller, "Empirical Studies of Welfare Dependency: A Survey," Journal of Human Resources, VIII Supplement, 1973, p. 23. And Herbert S. Parnes et al, Dual Careers: A Longitudinal Analysis of the Labor Market Experience of Women, Vol. 4 (Columbus, Ohio State University, Dec. 1975), p. 134.

k. They are socialized to limited aspirations.

Not all of the reasons why women tend to find themselves mired in dead-end, low income jobs lie outside the women workers themselves. Societal pressures on women to keep their occupational aspirations low have become internalized and then reflected in the women's own perceptions and choices. Some internal, attitudinal problems afflict low income men and middle class working women too, but it appears that low income women suffer both from being poor and from being female. They also put a high priority on jobs that offer flexible or shorter hours and those with convenient locations--even to the exclusion of opportunities for advancement, greater benefits, or increased job security.[30] These factors may well be related to the child care responsibilities discussed above. To be sure, women at the lowest income

[30] Sexton, op. cit., p. 102. Also Samuel Z. Klausner et al, The Work Incentive Program: Making Adults Economically Independent, Vol. I (Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania, 1972), Chapter VI.

levels are quite accurate in their perception that the jobs available to them often are hardly more remunerative and certainly less secure than welfare payments, so that it is scarcely irrational for them to place a premium on matters of personal convenience or accommodation in choosing employment.[31]

Beyond this, women show the effects of sex role conditioning--and thus the need for change in education, counseling and job training programs--in the following ways: many are glad to see other women open up new employment opportunities, but do not want to be occupational pioneers themselves;[32] young women often underestimate their future labor force participation[33] and thus fail to prepare adequately; women often lack confidence in their ability to travel, even to unfamiliar parts of their own metropolitan regions.[34] And women, especially those living in poverty, have above average numbers of health problems, including nutritional and obesity disorders.[35]

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[31]Klausner, op. cit., Summary and Conclusions. Also Georgina M. Smith, Job Training: The WIN Program for Welfare Mothers (New Brunswick, Rutgers University, March 1972), p. 25

[32]Barbara M. Wertheimer and Anne H. Nelson, Trade Union Women: A Study of Their Participation in New York City Locals (New York, Praeger Publishers, 1975, p. 132. Mark Battle Associates, Evaluation of the Availability and Effectiveness of MDTA Institutional Training and Employment Services for Women, Vol. III, Final Report. Prepared U.S. Office of Education and the Manpower Administration, U.S. Departments of Health, Education and Welfare and Labor, 1974, pp. 26 and 28

[33]Carol Jusenius, "Barriers to Entry and Re-entry into the Labor Force." Paper read at the U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau Workshop on Research Needed to Improve the Employment and Employability of Women (Washington, D. C., June 1974).

[34]John R. Shea, Welfare Mothers: Barriers to Labor Force Entry, Report #82-39-72-21 for the U.S. Department of Labor (Columbus, Ohio State University, September 1972), p. 8.

[35]Ibid., p. 10. Klausner, op. cit., Chapter X. Daphne Roe and Kathleen Eichart, Health and Nutritional Status of Working and Non-Working Mothers in Poverty Groups.

Considering the cruel consequences of low incomes for millions of women, the final twist of the knife is that many have reduced their aspirations to fit their limited expectations. Many women say that they are happy with the jobs they hold, regardless of pay or status.[36] Many young women "aspire" to precisely those jobs which they themselves recognize as less well paying, less prestigious, and less demanding of competence.[37] Minority women seem to suffer doubly from this curtailment of aspirations, lowering their sights in response to both racial and sexual factors.[38]

The existence of low aspirations and internalized self-defeating attitudes should not, however, be used as an excuse for failing to reach out to and help low income women. Similar attitudinal problems are common to all oppressed groups, and the many successful education and counseling programs that have helped raise the aspirations of minority group members can serve as a model for ways to help low-income women.

2. Do Governmental Statistical Analyses Overlook Low Income Women?

If the statistical evidence shows that low income women as a class have a disproportionate share of problems and unmet needs which not only blight their own lives but damage the lives and prospects of millions of children, what does the evidence show with

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[36] Sexton, op. cit., p. 61.

[37] Patricia Gurin, The Role of Worker Expectancies in the Study of Employment Discrimination (Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, 1974), p. 20.

[38] Ibid., p. 26.

respect to the federal government's response? Is it aware of the particular problems? Is it responding with programs tailored to help low income women develop the attitudes and skills they need to expand their opportunities?

The first thing that is clear from an examination of the evidence is that the federal government does not seem to have focused on low income women as a group at all. Almost nowhere in the government can one find statistical analysis involving low income women as an identified or identifiable group. Instead, these women are lumped in with other groups; statistically, low income women are virtually invisible, and it is not unreasonable to conclude from this that they are all but unseen programmatically as well.

a. The problem of the "hidden" subgroup.

While many programs are initiated for "the unemployed" or "the economically disadvantaged" or "women," the programs are oriented and monitored in such a way that it is impossible to break out the effects on low income women specifically. Often but by no means always, there is a statistical breakdown of figures dealing with minority women. This gives rise to a temptation to equate "low income" with "minority" and thus to confuse cultural and economic factors. Most frequently, however, figures are collected separately on women or on race, but on low income not at all. Thus one strongly suspects that the needs of low income women as a specific group are obscured and overlooked by the federal government in its concentration on "women" or the "economically disadvantaged." To illustrate the way this can work, the chart below suggests the extent to which the full measure of the problems of a doubly

disadvantaged group can be hidden in averages. Since data on low income and sex are not available, we use (as a stand-in, to illustrate the point) statistics on race and sex, which are only sometimes available and only somewhat similar. (See Fig. 2 below.)

In 1974, 4.8 percent of all men were unemployed, and 6.7 percent of all women--a substantial but perhaps not shocking disparity. In the same year, unemployment for all whites was 5 percent, and for all non-whites 9.9 percent--a more dramatic difference. Yet neither of these sets of figures can reveal the magnitude of the disparity in unemployment between white males and non-white females. The unemployment rate for the former was 4.3 percent and for the latter 10.7 percent. In other words, minority women were two-and-a-half times more likely to be out of work that year than were white males. If one had considered minority women only as part of the lump of women-in-general, one would have thought them to be less than half again as likely to be jobless. Similarly, if minority women were considered as part of minorities-in-general, they would have seemed less than twice as unemployed.

Figure #2: 1974 Unemployment Rates

	Whites	Minorities	
Men	4.3	9.1	4.8 (all men)
Women	6.1	10.7	6.7 (all women)
	5.0 all whites	9.9 all minorities	

Source: 1975 Manpower Report of the President, Table A-18, p. 230.

A still more striking example of what can happen where statistics do not differentiate sufficiently is illustrated by Fig. 3 (below). It shows that while all men aged 18 and 19 had an unemployment rate of 13.3 percent and women in the same age group had an unemployment rate of 15.4 percent--an incidence only 15 percent greater--the rate for white men in this age cadre was 11.5 percent and for minority women 33.7 percent--an incidence almost 300 percent as much.

Figure #3:

1974 Unemployment Rate -- 18 and 19 Year Olds

	Whites	Minorities	
Men	11.5	26.6	13.3 (all males)
Women	13.0	33.7	15.4 (all females)

Source: 1975 Manpower Report of the President, Table A-20, p. 233.

Even when low income women are looked at separately, there is a tendency to compare them unfairly with the wrong groups and so to minimize the apparent magnitude of their problems. This is particularly true for black women. Gurin and Gaylord, in looking at income studies which controlled for race and controlled for sex, found that black women appear to do better in relation to black men than do white women in comparison with white men; the black women earn 46 percent as much as black men while white women earn only 35 percent as much as white men. When the earnings of black women and black men are compared with the earnings of white women and white men,

the black women again appear to advantage: they earn 82 percent of what white women do, while black men earn only 60 percent of what white men earn. When the unwarranted racial and sexual assumptions about what constitutes a proper comparison are winnowed out, however, the position of black women is revealed in its true dimensions: they are burdened with a double handicap. When all categories of workers are compared with the most favored white males, one learns that black men earn 60 percent of the white men's average wages, white women 35 percent, and black women only 27 percent.[39]

Partly as a result of this failure to categorize appropriately federal programs in education and job training may well be dealing with "the disadvantaged" and with "women," without addressing low income women. This is because "women" often turn out, in government statistics, to be middle class women and the "economically disadvantaged" often are disadvantaged males. As analysis of program after program will suggest, there is little basis for assuming that low income women are somehow being taken care of in spite of their absence from the statistics. For the most part, such women are receiving little attention, except insofar as they can be shunted quickly into the secondary labor market.

b. The need for accurate categories.

If government programs are to meet the needs of those they should serve, it is also necessary to distinguish between sub-groups

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[39] Patricia Gurin and Carolyn Gaylord, Sex-Role Constraints: The College-Educated Black Woman (Ann Arbor, University of Michigan, 1974), p. 5.

within the category of low income women. They are, in fact, a more diverse group than low income men. Low income women have in common lack of training or skills and lack of opportunities for jobs in the primary labor market, but the causes of these problems are diverse. And so are the appropriate solutions. As one end of the socio-economic spectrum are middle class women who have been plunged into financial straits by divorce or widowhood; many are middle-aged and have never been employed before and are perhaps only temporarily poor. At the other end of the spectrum are long-time welfare recipients who have been poor all their lives and almost too disabled physically to work. In between are many categories of women, each with different degrees of skill, health, energy, determination, and commitment to traditional attitudes toward work. The failure of the government to recognize these distinctions and build its programs accordingly is self-defeating for the government and all its citizens--program users and taxpayers alike.

3. What Factors Need to be Investigated?

a. Is there agreement on purposes?

If the government has belatedly begun to recognize that low income women are a group in particular need of vocational aid, it has not yet developed a broadly accepted definition of what this assistance should seek to achieve. Are job development programs intended to bring about income transfers, to support American society's commitment to the work ethic, to provide income maintenance, improve the quality of life for the poor, save the government money, affect individual lifetime earnings, or simply to mount a

counter-cyclical effort? As the Joint Economic Committee[40] has pointed out, government agencies seldom agree among themselves on these questions of goals--much less on the related question of what constitutes a meaningful evaluation of success in the government programs.[41] This uncertainty as to goals and the measurement of success is particularly apparent in the HEW and Labor Department programs to be assessed in this paper.[42]

b. How well are low income women being served?

Examining these programs from the viewpoint of low income women, rather than from the perspective of the government, the paper will limit itself to two questions:

1. To what extent are low income women being served at all by a program?

2. To what extent are low income women trained and assisted in obtaining work in fields new to them and above their previous ability or aspiration levels? With what results?[43]

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[40]U.S. Congress, Joint Economic Committee, The Effectiveness of Manpower Training Programs, A Review of Research on the Impact on the Poor, Studies in Public Welfare Paper No. 3, Nov. 20, 1972, p. 1.

[41]The difficulty in measuring success is not only the result of defining the aims but of evaluating large-scale social programs. Evaluations are plagued by modifications of programs themselves in mid-stream (true for both WIN and CETA), the shifting economic scene against which to measure, the lack of convincing control groups obtained before evaluation, the time lag in data collection and analysis, the difficulty in measuring "non-economic" benefits (or economic benefits which change after a while).

[42]Mark Battle Associates, op. cit., Vol. I, A Review of the Literature, Chapter IV, pp. 9 and 10.

[43]We will also look at the degree to which programs go beyond rhetoric and actually provide assistance. We will ask if agencies are giving technical assistance in how to effect change and using research and demonstration grants to point the way to change.

Here again, the pinpointing of specific answers to the first question is made difficult by the fact, emphasized earlier, that data traditionally have been collected--where they have been collected at all--with respect to "disadvantaged" persons or women, but almost never with respect to "disadvantaged women" or low income women. Indirect indicators must be relied on in most instances, though they are sufficient to make clear the essential dimensions of the situation in most programs. Regrettably, no great statistical subtlety is required to discern the extent of the government's failure to address the vocational needs of low income women.

c. What is the appropriate definition of success?

With respect to the second question or criterion, the degree to which federally supported programs are helping low income women expand their work horizons, the issue of what constitutes success is critical. Thus a review of the literature evaluating the effectiveness of training programs generally is required before the specific programs of concern to this paper are taken up.[44]

To begin with, most studies agree that there are important non-economic elements in what participants in manpower training programs regard as success: increased feelings of self-worth, independence, confidence, and such. Such qualities vary with the

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[44]It is beyond the scope of this report to judge the procedural correctness of the many evaluations of manpower training, or even to discuss them in detail. They will be mentioned, both in the text and the bibliography so that the interested reader may examine them further. No studies widely understood to be of poor quality have been included.

individual, however, are difficult to judge, and virtually impossible to quantify. As a result, the literature has by and large contented itself with measuring economic gain for program participants and comparing this gain with the program's cost for the government.

Even when the definition of success is thus confined to economics, problems develop immediately. Measurements of financial gain are commonly made soon after the training program ends. And as the Joint Economic Committee Report on the Effectiveness of Manpower Programs points out, what is found 6 to 12 months after a training course ends may be very different from what would be found if the participants were surveyed 5 or 10 years later.[45] As a general rule, the Labor Department has not kept records on the employment histories of participants in its programs for more than 6 months after training, though its newly funded longitudinal survey will at least extend this boundary to one year after training ends.[46] Even a one-year-later follow-up seems inadequate, especially since non-economic gains seem unlikely to make their presence felt on the financial side so quickly; it would probably take a longer time for increased perception of self-worth or an expanded sense of vocational possibilities to be translated into a higher-level job and better pay.

d. Does training matter?

While not unanimous, the literature broadly supports the generalization that, whatever the merits of training for men, it

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[45] U.S. Congress, Joint Economic Committee, The Effectiveness of Manpower Training Programs, op. cit., p. 15.

[46] Manpower Report of the President, transmitted to the U.S. Congress, April 1975, p. 92.

makes a substantial difference for women. Not only are women more likely to be placed in jobs after training than before, but their earnings are also likely to be significantly higher.[47] Two factors may dilute the significance of the earnings gain, of course: women often enter training programs because they are unemployed or dissatisfied with their current wages, which means they frequently start from a low base of comparison;[48] also, training programs often convert women from part-time to full-time workers.[49] Allowing for these factors, an impressive group of studies still shows that there are significant earnings increases after training.[50] A recent review of participants in one of our programs to be studied, for example, states:

> Placements appear to influence AFDC [i.e., welfare] costs and recipient rates only if the placement service is also associated with some form of manpower training. Thus, concentration on the placement function of the program, to the exclusion of the training function, is probably an extremely poor allocation of resources.[51]

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[47] Charles R. Perry, et al, The Impact of Government Manpower Programs, In General and on Minorities and Women (Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania, 1976), p. 396.

[48] Thomas Cooley, et al, The Impact of Manpower Training on Earnings: An Econometric Analysis (Pittsburgh, Carnegie-Mellon University, 1975). Prepared for the U.S. Department of Labor, p. 24.

[49] Sexton, op. cit., p. 198.

[50] Perry, et al, op. cit., p. 78. See also Olympus Research Corporation study for U.S. Department of Labor, 1972, and Nicholas M. Kiefer, The Economic Benefits from Manpower Training Programs; Final Report, prepared for the U.S. Department of Labor, Contract #J-9-M-S-0088 (Princeton University, July 1976), p. 81.

[51] Ronald G. Ehrenberg and James Hewlett, "The Impact of the WIN 2 Program on Welfare Costs and Recipient Rates," Journal of Human Resources, Vol. XI, Chapter 2, 1976, p. 231.

Another study indicates that females are much more likely to use their training in later jobs than are males (62% compared to 39% respectively).[52] Furthermore, minority females seem particularly dependent on training and have had greater post-training earnings than have males.[53]

If training makes a difference to low income women, what kind of training makes the most difference? This is a difficult question to answer using comparison studies. As a recent review of employment and training programs by the Congressional Budget Office points out, it is difficult to compare programs because some involve participants who are harder to train than others.[54] Despite this and other difficulties, several studies indicate that skills training classroom and on-the-job training have a significantly greater effect on female participants than such other approaches as work experience and summer youth programs.[55] (Obviously, these comparative ratings are due in part to the kinds of jobs which have comprised the "work experience" for young women. If and when

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[52] Mark Battle Associates, op. cit., Vol. II, Re-Analysis of the MDTA Outcomes Study, p. 4.

[53] Perry, et al, op. cit., p. 78.

[54] U.S. Congress, Congressional Budget Office, Employment and Training Programs, Staff Working Paper (Washington, D. C., May 1976), p. 17.

[55] Ibid., p. 16. Perry, et al, op. cit., p. 78. It is important to distinguish here between a work experience in programs and the experience-based career education programs of HEW which are not for pay but rather introduce high school students to a wide range of occupational options. It is also important to distinguish between the youth work experience programs of short duration and the on-the-job training programs for permanent, skilled positions.

"work experience" comes to mean placement in more highly skilled, non-traditional jobs, the comparatively negative rating of "work experience" would be drastically changed. See Appendix A, pages 1-4, for important aspects of programs which provide training in non-traditional jobs.)[55a] In sum, it remains to be seen to what extent women are currently receiving needed training.

[55a] Another explanation for this result could be that women, given their traditional socialization patterns, may require more extended training programs than men to become effective competitors for certain kinds of high-paying jobs in what have been male-dominated fields. For example, a 19 year old woman may need a substantial period of training before she can become a skilled mechanic, because it takes time to master the beginning jargon and skills typically acquired by her male classmate Saturday afternoons fiddling with car engines at the garage.

This is not to say, however, that work experience and summer programs for women cannot succeed. With creative design and appropriate choice of goals, any sort of training program--long or short--can have favorable impact. What the studies of past programs suggest is simply that, to date, this rarely has been the case.

C. Assessment of Selected Programs with Potential for Assisting Low-Income Women to Increase Their Earning Power

1. Overview

The programs to be reviewed are either within the Education Division of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW) or are formally linked to HEW in ways described below. Programs within the Education Division which are reviewed are the Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, the Office of Career Education, and the Women's Educational Equity Act Staff (all within the Office of Education) the Education and Work Group and the Women's Research Program (within the National Institute of Education); and the Fund for the Improvement of Post-secondary Education.

Also reviewed are the Work Incentive Program, jointly administered by HEW and the Department of Labor, and the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act program, administered by the Department of Labor but with formal coordination links with HEW.

Outlined below are the scope and history of each program, together with an assessment of the degree to which each is helping low income women find jobs for which they are already prepared and the extent to which such women are being helped to expand their vocational horizons and opportunities. Some programs are much larger than others. Some have legislative mandates more conducive to helping low income women than do others. However, all will be assessed so as to see to what extent the needs of a target group are being met and what, if anything, can be done to improve service. Since budgets vary enormously in size, we will examine percent of budget spent on the target population rather than the raw figures.

2. Office of Education: Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education (BOAE):

The Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education (BOAE) supervises disbursement of some $700 million a year in federal aid to vocational training and basic adult education. In fact, the new vocational education bill calls for a large increase in this authorization to over $1 billion for fiscal year 1978. Most of these funds are passed through to state agencies for use at their discretion, but the Bureau has at least four opportunities for exerting influence: 1) in its authority to accept or reject state plans, 2) as a distributor of information, 3) as a link to the Labor Department's employment and training programs, and 4) through the Bureau's own discretionary research and demonstration funds. In recent years, the BOAE has been under some pressure to give greater attention to women's problems and to push for greater attention to these problems at the state level. Thus far, although progress has been made, the results appear to be mixed.

a. Encouraging signs.

There are a number of encouraging signs. The Bureau's deputy commissioner now has a special advisor on women's affairs. Sensitivity to women's concerns is higher on the agency's roster of priorities. A list has been compiled of projects beneficial to women, though low income women are considered only incidentally. BOAE funded the recently published study, Women in New Careers.[56]

[56]CONSAD Research Corporation, Women in New Careers, prepared for the Office of Education, March 1976. The results of this study will be discussed in connection with a discussion of the value of training for women.

And for fiscal year 1977, Bureau guidelines for exemplary projects contain a requirement that all projects address the problems of sex bias and stereotyping. While not specifically aimed at low income women, this will encourage local school districts to help girls and women explore a wide range of career choices. The Bureau gives technical assistance to state and even local directors of vocational education on women's issues and the problem of sex stereotyping in vocational education.

The Bureau's newly launched Management Evaluation Reviews of state programs will include a review of grantees for compliance with federal prohibitions against sexual discrimination in education programs (Title IX). Furthermore, the Bureau is seeking to encourage the incorporation of positive attitudes toward non-traditional occupational education for both males and females through guidance, recruitment and career awareness programs. Also, in allocating its research and demonstration funds next year, BOAE plans to give special priorities to the needs of women, the disadvantaged, the unemployed, and inner city residents. If these priorities are combined in sensitive ways, the result could be projects that directly address the needs of low income women.

b. <u>More needs to be done</u>.

Gains by BOAE remain small in relation to the need. The position of advisor on women, originally just a temporary portion, has now been made permanent but at the rather low level of GS 11. An examination of the research and demonstration grants made at the Bureau's discretion shows that only a few are concerned with women

at all, much less the particularly urgent needs of low income women. In fiscal 1974 through 1976, $1,145,995 out of some $27 million in research funds was spent on projects dealing with women. This is about 4.2 percent of the total research funds, concentrated on 12 projects out of about 300 that were funded,[57] even though fiscal year 1974 and 1975 listed disadvantaged and minorities as priority areas and fiscal 1976 listed sex role stereotyping and bias as a priority for research. The picture is brighter with respect to demonstration funds: in fiscal 1976, $6.2 million or 75 percent of the $8 million budget will be spent on the Experience-Based Career Education program, which was first developed by the National Institute of Education and which, at BOAE's insistence, now contains a mandatory component on the elimination of sex stereotyping.

The picture is also less than bright with regard to the basic grants to states administered by BOAE's Division of Vocational and Technical Education. Only four states used their discretionary portion of vocational education research money for exploration in the preparation of women in a broader range of occupations.[58]

c. Record not good with the "disadvantaged."

In order to begin an assessment of the degree to which BOAE programs are affecting low income girls and women, it is necessary

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[57] See Appendix B- for a listing of Research and Demonstration funds pertaining to low income girls and women.

[58] Pamela Roby, "Toward Full Equality: More Job Education for Women," The School Review, Vol. 84 (Feb. 1976). In footnote 4, Ms. Roby mentions program in Texas, New Hampshire and Illinois. North Carolina has also been very active.

to look at the degree to which programs are reaching the disadvantaged generally. Here again, the lack of clarity in the data shows the importance of collecting and analyzing it in more detail. The states are required by statute to set aside 15 percent of their vocational education funds for "those with academic, socioeconomic or other handicaps which prevent them from succeeding in the regular vocational education programs." This is, of course, a very broad category which the states can narrow down as they see fit. (Middle class children from small rural elementary schools may qualify as having been academically disadvantaged.) The law also requires federal funding of areas with high youth unemployment. As a result, the Bureau knows how much money is being spent on the "disadvantaged." It also knows how many disadvantaged/handicapped students are in its programs, broken down by sex. (In fiscal year 1975 it had 1,742,026 disadvantaged or handicapped persons.[59]) However, it has no way of knowing how many low income people are in their regular vocational education classes, how many of these are girls, and what kinds of courses they are taking. Some 1972 data shows that only 13.9 percent of vocational education students were "disadvantaged," and the data do not indicate what proportion of these were women.[60] Another hint of our problem comes from statistics gathered by HEW's

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[59]This figure excludes California, which did not bother to report its number of disadvantaged/handicapped. The figure on women is not even shown above because so many states failed to break them out as a separate statistic. Such casual reporting is as serious a problem as many others mentioned.

[60]U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, Vocational and Technical Education: Selected Statistical Tables, Fiscal Year 1972 (Washington, D. C., 1973), p. 31.

Office of Civil Rights on post-secondary vocational education programs. From this we know that 19.2 percent of students were from minorities, and only 9.3 percent were minority females.[61] And of the 15.9 percent minority participants in post-secondary "technical" training, a mere 2.5 percent were females. Since many minority students are not low income or disadvantaged and vica versa, this is not a very helpful figure. Another indication that the division's programs are missing the low income student target is a sample survey of vocational education programs made by the National Center for Educational Statistics; it showed that 45.6 percent of all vocational classes reported that they contained no disadvantaged students at all.[62]

d. Where are the girls enrolled?

If vocational education programs are missing the disadvantaged, they are not missing girls in general. On the surface, the situation might seem commendable: in 1975, 54 percent of all those served by programs under the aegis of the Vocational and Technical Education Division are women. Yet this is a misleading average of enormously disparate figures. Women comprise 84.7 percent of all students in consumer and homemaking courses, a mere 9.5 percent of all trainees

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[61] U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Civil Rights, Survey of Post-Secondary Area Vocational-Technical Schools Enrollments 1974--Final Total (excluding New York and Pennsylvania).

[62] Nicholas Osso, Vocational Education, Characteristics of Students and Staff, 1972 (Washington, D. C., National Center of Educational Statistics, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1974), p. 49.

in vocational agriculture, for example.[63] See Table 1 below. In fact, the record as a

[63]U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Bureau of Adult and Occupational Education, Vocational and Technical Education statistical tables for Fiscal Year 1975. This percentage is based on state reports, minus six states which did not report women separately. The six states are California, Delaware, Florida, Illinois, Rhode Island and South Carolina.

Percentage of Females in Technical and Vocational Education Programs
Comparative Figures for 1972 and 1975

	1972 Total[1]	1975 Total[1]	1972 Total Female[1]	1975 Total Female[1]	1972 % Female[1]	1975 % Female[1]
Vocational Agriculture	753,052	845,197	31,797	79,949	4.2%	9.5%
Distributive Education[2]	482,662	637,415	222,854	300,232	46.2%	47.1%
Health Occupations	251,403	469,722	213,964	364,278	85.1%	77.6%
Consumer and Homemaking Programs	2,692,386	2,784,506	2,484,438	2,357,616	92.3%	84.7%
Gainful Home Economics	168,386	290,662	140,460	241,053	83.4%	82.9%
Office Occupations	1,610,056	1,987,932	1,241,736	1,460,141	77.1%	73.5%
Technical Education	238,438	314,823	21,356	36,526	9.0%	11.6%
Trade and Industrial Education	1,766,075	2,179,862	209,558	289,100	11.9%	13.3%
TOTAL	7,962,458	9,510,099	4,566,172	5,128,895	57.3%	53.9%

[1] Because six states did not separate out female enrollments in 1975, their states' totals were removed from the 1972 count. Thus the comparison is of totals in 44 states only, for purposes of comparison. States missing are Illinois, California, Rhode Island, Delaware, Florida and South Carolina.

[2] Distributive Education is a collection of skills involved in selling goods and services. It ranges from floristry to hotel work to insurance saleswork.

Source: 1972 figures from Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, Vocational and Technical Education Selected Statistical Tables, Fiscal Year 1972, pp. 34-41, 1975 figures as yet unpublished.

whole demonstrates a concentration of women in programs traditional for them:[64] health occupations 78 percent, consumer and homemaking programs 85 percent, gainful home economics 83 percent, office occupations 74 percent, contrasted with low representation in traditionally male vocations--vocational agriculture 9.5 percent, technical education 11.6 percent, trade and industrial education 13.3 percent. It need hardly be said that these concentration patterns are harmful to women in general and low income women in particular because the stereotyping strongly tends to exclude them from the training that leads to higher paying jobs and expanded opportunities. Nor is the pattern different if one examines occupational distribution data for women in post-secondary vocational education programs (1974): 86 percent of those enrolled in health occupations programs are women, 86 percent in home economics, 60 percent in office occupations, contrasted with only 15.5 percent in vocational agriculture, 11.8 percent in technical occupations, and 11 percent in trade and industrial occupations.[65]

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[64] These figures are the most recent (FY 1975) data collected by BOAE. Since 6 states (California, Delaware, Florida, Illinois, Rhode Island and South Carolina) did not report females separately, the percentages have been calculated in comparison to 1972 figures with the same 6 states removed.

[65] U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office for Civil Rights, op. cit.

Table 2

Post-Secondary Enrollments (1974)
Vocational-Technical Schools

(Note: excludes New York and Pennsylvania)

Vocational Agriculture

	both sexes	female
all races	17,830	2,766
white	16,804	2,620
minority (Native American black, Asian American, Spanish	1,026	146

All females as % of total: 15.5%
White females as % of total: 14.7%
Minority females as % of total: .8%

Marketing and Distributive

	both sexes	female
all races	42,471	14,641
white	34,800	12,013
minority	7,671	2,628

All females as % of total: 34.5%
White females as % of total: 28.3%
Minority females as % of total: 6.2%

Table 2 (cont'd)

Health Occupations

	both sexes	female
all races	82,769	71,071
white	68,364	58,811
minority	14,405	12,260

All females as % of total: 85.9%
White females as % of total: 71.1%
Minority females as % of total: 14.8%

Home Economics

	both sexes	female
all races	24,947	21,554
white	19,715	16,979
minority	5,232	4,575

All females as % of total: 86.4%
White females as % of total: 68.1%
Minority females as % of total: 18.3%

Table 2 (cont'd)

Business and Office Occupations

	both sexes	female
all races	143,247	86,886
whites	109,639	65,940
minority	33,608	20,946

All females as % of total: 60.7%
White females as % of total: 46.0%
Minority females as % of total: 14.6%

Technical Occupations

	both sexes	female
all races	91,296	10,734
white	76,739	8,430
minority	14,557	2,304

All females as % of total: 11.8%
White females as % of total: 9.2%
Minority females as % of total: 2.5%

Table 2 (cont'd)

Trade and Industrial Occupations[1]

	both sexes	female
all races	164,916	18,069
white	130,706	14,015
minority	30,885	3,735

All females as % of total: 11.0%
White females as % of total: 8.5%
Minority females as % of total: 2.3%

[1] Office of Civil Rights figures do not tally on this chart only (i.e. the sum of white and minority is less than the grand total.) In this case we have taken the figures as stated.

Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Civil Rights, Enrollments 1974: Postsecondary Area Vocational-Technical Schools--Final Totals (excluding New York and Pennsylvania).

Moreover, there is evidence that the broad categories tend to obscure the full extent of sex stereotyping in vocational education. The survey of post-secondary programs shows, for example, that 60 percent of all trainees in "business and office occupations" are women--a seemingly reasonable distribution. Yet a closer examination of the underlying data reveals that women are 38 percent of those being prepared to handle "business data processing" but 86.5 percent of those trained for "filing and clerical work." Similarly, women are 93.7 percent of all those trained for "stenographic and secretarial employment" within the large "business and office" category but only 21.3 percent of those being trained to hold jobs involving "supervisory and administrative management."[66]

e. Minority women

For minority women the pattern is even more extreme, both in secondary and post-secondary programs. In post-secondary-level programs for health occupations, 85 percent of total minority enrollment is female, 87 percent in home economics,[66a] 62 percent in office occupations, compared with 14 percent in vocational agriculture, 15.8 percent in technical occupations, and 12 percent in trade and industrial occupations. Keep in mind that all of these numbers, strongly reflective of stereotyping as they are, limit the comparison to minority men and women. If the proportion of minority women in the total enrollment of various higher-potential job training categories is considered, the figures are disheartening in the extreme: only 0.8 percent in vocational agriculture, 2.5 percent

[66] Ibid.

[66a] The vast majority of vocational education courses in home economics are preparation for homemaking rather than gainful employment. Thus they include courses in Home Management, Home Furnishing, Consumer Education, etc. Only 10% of the students in Home Economics were in "Home Economics: Occupational Preparation."

in technical occupations, and 2.2 percent in trade and industrial occupations. The figures are virtually the same with respect to the proportion of minority women in the total population enrolled in secondary-level training or education programs: 1 percent in vocational agriculture, 2 percent in technical occupations, 4 percent of those in trade and industrial occupation programs.[67]

It should certainly be noted that there has been some progress in this area during the last three years. In every category, women have been moving toward the mean, as Table 1 indicates--even if only by a few percentage points.

The BOAE Vocational Education program is under considerable pressure to continue this movement toward the mean. It is working to bring its programs into compliance with Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, which prohibits sex discrimination in all education programs. BOAE is interpreting this as mandating that women comprise at least 20 percent of the enrollment in every program or receive special scrutiny. Programs with greater than 80:20 ratios must then prove that their disproportionate enrollment is not due to sex discrimination.[68] While this will undoubtedly lead to improvement in many programs, the agency's approach will mean that a program enrolling 21 percent women will be as safe from automatic negative evaluation as one enrolling 45 percent. Nor will it be under pressure to improve its ratios. Last year the Office of Management and Budget permitted the Bureau to resume its collection

[67] Osso, Vocational Education Characteristics, op. cit., p. 11.

[68] Office of Civil Rights Title IX Compliance Manual.

of data on the basis of sex and race. The practice had been discontinued in 1972 for administrative reasons and was reinstituted partly in response to pressure from women's groups.[69]

f. New law stresses need to overcome sex stereotyping.

The Education Amendments of 1976, signed into law in October 1976, contain a number of provisions which will increase BOAE's responsibility and opportunities for demonstrating leadership in overcoming sex bias and sex stereotyping in vocational education programs. Overcoming sex stereotyping is now one of the formal purposes of the federal vocational education law, and each state is required to include in its state plan descriptions of steps it will take to overcome sex bias and sex stereotyping. All states must also assign full-time personnel to coordinating this task at the state level. Direction is given for the expenditure of discretionary money on research and development projects that would increase opportunities for women.

Of course, efforts outside the school may be vitally important to the ultimate impact of required reforms within the vocational education system. Girls and women must be trained for, placed in, and advanced within traditionally male occupations. To do this, systematic coordination of educators, employers, worker representatives and community leaders, as is now coming to the fore in discussions of the transition from school to work, may be especially useful. In the past, education-industry coordinating groups sometimes have fallen into the trap of tracking women mechanically into

[69]Remarks of Program Specialist, Reports and Data, Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education.

traditional jobs. But with careful attention to the problems of sex bias and sex stereotyping, such groups can fulfill a central function in advancing the career opportunities of women.

g. Adult education

The situation appears clouded in BOAE's Division of Adult (Basic) Education, administered under the Adult Education Act of 1966, as amended. The program unquestionably deals with a population that is at least disadvantaged educationally. The Division is praiseworthy in its focus on low income women. Females comprise 57 percent of all program participants in this division.[70] And of these, 290,877 or more than 35 percent were minority females in fiscal 1973.[71] Compared with other areas of the BOAE, these figures paint a more impressive picture; however, two notes of caution must be sounded. First, the division's programs serve less than 1 percent of the population in need, since 51 million American adults do not have a high school diploma.[72] Of the 15 million Americans with less than eight years schooling,[73] only about 3 percent are touched by basic adult education programs. The second caveat is that follow-up data on post-training histories

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[70] Nicholas Osso, Adult Basic and Secondary Level Program Statistics, Fiscal Year 1973 (Washington, D. C., National Center for Educational Statistics, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1975), p. 10.

[71] Ibid., p. 11.

[72] U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, Division of Adult Education, Adventure in Human Development: Adult Education Program Fact Sheet (Washington, D. C., 1975).

[73] Ibid.

of students from adult basic education programs are disappointing from the point of view of increasing incomes.[74]

The formal educational achievements of Adult Basic Education students are also disappointing in relation to job-related need. The National Center for Education Statistics recently surveyed adult education programs for fiscal year 1973.[75] It found that out of 822,469 students enrolled, 215,147 (or about 26.1%) got an eighth grade diploma, went on to high school or other education, got a high school diploma or passed the GED examination.[76] More distressing is the fact that only 27,610 (or 3%) of those participating in the program got a better job after finishing adult education programs. Since women make up 57% of the students, we will assume roughly 1.7% of people who got better jobs after finishing were women. If one adds the number who dropped out of adult education programs because of better jobs, there were 46,089 who got a better job either after or before completion of the course. This is 5.6% of all program participants. (Thus roughly 3.2% of program participants who got better jobs were women.) Another 8.6% (assuming roughly 4.9% females) went from unemployed

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[74] The Adult Education program has, of course, other purposes besides helping people obtain better jobs. For the purposes of this paper, however, we are assessing the programs in terms of the income-related objective only. Thus we exclude basic education for the purpose of learning to fill out income tax forms, take a drivers license, or apply for citizenship.

[75] Osso, Adult Basic Program Statistics FY 1973, op. cit., pp. 46, 48 and 52.

[76] 237,446 students (or 28.9% completed 8th or 12th grade. However, since jobs are so dependent on formal attainments, we are merely using the number who actually received 8th or 12th grade diplomas.

to employed either during or after the education program. If one adds all of those 46,089 who got a better job, 109,299 who took other training and 71,06% who became employed (both those who completed and those who dropped out), one finds that 226,452 adult students (let us suppose 129,078 women or only 15.7% of all students and 27.5% of women students) had a job-related positive training effect. Since BOAE has no post-training earnings comparisons for adult education students, there is no way of knowing whether or not the training had a significant residual effect.

3. Office of Education: Career Education

The Office of Career Education, created in 1974 to infuse career awareness into elementary and secondary school curricula, has worked over the past years with state education agencies to develop a network of school programs. The Office's primary legislative mandate is to serve children through the secondary school level. (Although there are a few projects at the post-secondary level.) For this reason, its ability to focus on the needs of low income women is not great. However it will be discussed, since its mission has potential to affect career thinking of low income girls. The Office has funded each year only two or three demonstration projects directed to overcoming sex role sterotyping in career education. Thus in its new round of projects, it is spending only $240,299 out of $10 million on 2 out of 118 projects for reduction of sex stereotyping in career choices. However, a number of projects include this objective as a component. Career Education is also making efforts to concern its state directors and grantees with how to avoid sex role stereotyping, through workshops and information packets.

The Office has funded prototypical projects for low income and for minority children in several cities, although whether these focus on girls as opposed to minority problems in general is unclear. Although the Career Education program has begun to address the issue of sex bias and sex stereotyping in career education programs, it is too early to tell if these efforts will have any effect on the aspirations of girls in general or low-income girls in particular.

4. The Women's Educational Equity Act (WEEA)

This program was created in 1974 to spearhead the elimination of sex bias in federally supported education programs. This past year the staff has concentrated on developing grant procedures and funding the first round of demonstration programs mandated by the law.

The program is, by statute, focused on educational equity for women in general and not specifically on low income women. Thus, though a number of its grants are for programs which may have an effect on low income, minority or disadvantaged females, most are not focused on these groups. Last year it spent $93,722 of special funds on a conference for expanding career options for women (blue and white collar). This year, fiscal 1976, it has just made grants totalling $4,652,422. Of this, roughly 15 grants, totalling $1,232,413 or 26.5 percent of its funds is focused on low income women. Next year the WEEA Program will add two new priority areas,

one of which is "special target populations." This may be a chance for the increased funding of projects specifically targeted on low income women.

5. National Institute of Education (NIE): Education and Work Group and the Women's Research Program

Established in 1972 to support research and development in education, the National Institute of Education (NIE) has two units which focus at least partially on the

needs of women: the Education and Work Group and the Women's Research Program, which is contained within the Education Equity Group. During most of its brief history, NIE has touched on the particular needs of low income women only to the extent that they share in problems common to all women.

In the last year or so, this has begun to change. In its 1977 program plan, for example, the Education and Work Group adopted the following assessment made by the National Advisory Council on Vocational Education:

> Special groups such as the economically disadvantaged, minorities, the mentally and physically handicapped, and the gifted and talented have not benefited. Nor has career education dealt with the serious problems of occupational sex stereotyping that restricts freedom of occupational choice.[77]

As a step toward dealing with these problems, the Women's Research Program has begun holding a series of conferences with researchers and potential program "consumers" to consider the needs of various groups of minority women: black, Hispanic, Asian-Pacific, native American. The final conference will be concerned with white ethnic women. The WRS has also funded a study of the Massachusetts vocational education program, documenting its slowness to change its policies even in the face of strict new federal prohibitions on sex stereotyping.[78]

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[77] National Advisory Council on Vocational Education, 425 13th Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. Eighth Report, September 1974, pp. 4 and 5.

[78] Regina Healy and Diane Lund, Chapter 622: Massachusetts Law, Women and Vocational Education (U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, National Institute of Education Project #3-0046, September 1975).

For its part, the Education and Work Group is preparing to fund several studies of career and education access for minority and blue collar women; the study will ask why these women participate to such a slight degree in educational and up-grading programs that are available to them, and why they have such a high drop-out rate.

For both Education and Work and Women's Research this new effort comes against a background of some basic support for research on the external factors limiting career choices for women as a group, as well as studies of the complex interactions between external and internal factors. In this connection they have funded research illuminating the restrictive elements in female motivations, expectations, and aspirations as reinforced by society. The EWG financed a study of sex bias in career interest inventories and also the development of a sex-fair career counseling list.[79] While most of the unit's work has served low income women only tangentially, its Home Based Career Education model has probably been of direct value to such women. Developed with EWG support over a period of four fiscal years, it is an innovative system for using telephones and paraprofessionals to provide home-based women with career counseling. Although no figures are available as to exactly who has been served, it would seem to be a model for career counseling for low income women. The model is now being replicated elsewhere and the state of Rhode Island has adopted the system on a continuing basis.[79a]

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[79] For a listing of projects of special interest to women funded by NIE, see SACRRW's 1975 report (Steiger and Cooper, op. cit., pp. 59-63).

[79a] Its Experience Based Career Education model, though not as insistent as BOAE on no sex bias requirements, has also served low income girls more than tangentially.

In an effort to explore visual methods of overcoming sex stereotyping, NIE has funded three films exploring the role of women in American society and now is developing a series of programs for educational television to expand girls' interests and combat the negative effect of sex roles on interest development.

The task of measuring the degree to which NIE, a research and development organization, focuses on the needs of low income women is difficult. One rough indicator is the Institute's budget allocations. By its own calculation, NIE spends approximately 2.6 percent of its budget on research into the educational and occupational needs of women in general. All of this is spent by the Education and Work Program. and the Education Equity Women's Research Program. In fiscal 1976 it totaled about $1.5 million in the group's total budget of $11.5 million; the Women's Research Staff spent some $300,000 out of the Education Equity Group budget of $5.1 million. Clearly, these are not extraordinarily large proportions. Moreover, only a portion of this research deals directly with problems of low-income women.

Looking only at programs specifically geared to low income or minority women and girls as target populations, rather than at programs geared to others but benefiting low income or minority women incidentally, the Institute will have spent roughly $8.7 million between fiscal 1973 and fiscal 1978.[80] Based on the $90 million that is budgeted for each of the fiscal years 1977 and 1978, the amount spent for research on the problems of low income women during this period will have amounted to approximately 1.7 percent of NIE's total program budget, though the proportion will have been increasing during the period.

In sum, NIE has compiled a record that has been especially notable for efforts to expand the range of options open to working women and to understand and remove the barriers to wider participation in the job market. It must be said, however, that women's studies have yet to penetrate very far into the Institute's programs. Also, following the lead of BOAE, NIE needs to modify its Experience Based Career Education model and push for specific guide lines to eliminate sex stereotyping in those school districts to which it gives technical assistance.

6. Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education (FIPSE)

Created in 1972 along with the National Institute of Education, the Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education (FIPSE) is intended to "reform and improve" the education of adults

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[80] See Appendix B-2 for list of NIE projects dealing with the target population.

after high school. By statute its focus is on developing innovative institutional models rather than on serving various target populations. However, since women and the disadvantaged are two groups inadequately served by existing institutions, they have often in effect been beneficiaries of this program. It is impossible to make a precise assessment, but one rough measure is that in fiscal 1976, 15 out of 138 projects funded by FIPSE are judged to have had, or to give promise of having, particular impact on low income women. Together these 15 account for $1,110,719[81] or about 9.7 percent of the Fund's $11.5 million annual budget.

[81]See Appendix B-4. Of course, since these programs affect middle income women and/or low income men as well, the percentage of funds expended for low income women would be less than 9.7 percent--perhaps closer to 7 percent.

In addition, FIPSE's support for innovative ways to reach out to low income women, to ease their transition to institutional learning, and to increase the vocational competence of all women may offer examples to larger agencies. One such model is the Women's Center for Educational and Career Advancement sponsored by the National Council of Negro Women. It takes promising minority secretaries and, in conjunction with Pace University and the women's employers, helps them to earn an Associate Degree and begin professional business careers. The Women's Inner City Educational Resource Service Center (WINNERS) in the Roxbury section of Boston also seeks to broker educational services to low income women. Several other FIPSE programs also examine the needs of women seeking to enter careers in middle life.

7. Problems of Coordination and Dissemination: HEW's Education Division

The shortcomings of scope and focus in HEW programs affecting the vocational training needs of low income women are compounded by the Department's limited procedures for disseminating information about the programs' successes and failures. To be sure, particular programs provide dissemination to states at conferences of state education officers dealing with the particular programs (Career Education, Adult Education, and such). The Vocational Education program even has a weekly tele-conference with all regional directors. Yet within Washington, very little information is passed from one program office to another. (In this regard, it should be borne in mind that analysis of failure should be

communicated as readily as that of success,[82] since what did not work often teaches as much as what did.) The large information clearinghouses, such as ERIC and Project SHARE, are invaluable for research and for detailed study of specific, identified subjects. They are not equipped, however, to help with the more limited task of selecting, evaluating, and sharing the experience gained from programs scattered throughout HEW. In this, a series of newsletters or a digest might be valuable. In the end, a new legislative mandate emphasizing the importance of coordination and dissemination may be necessary. In this connection, the Women's Educational Equity Action Program is providing some interesting models for assessment and dissemination. It has hired private contractors to facilitate communication among WEEA's grantees so they can learn from each other. Contractors will also develop instruments to evaluate and develop case studies of funded projects and then to disseminate them. This is the kind of device which others might well create.

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[82] An example of a problem which needs dissemination is the Office of Career Education's grant to Girl Scouts in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, to introduce the girls to a number of non-traditional career options. The resistance which developed among the volunteers and in the community as well as the lessons learned from the difficulties would be perhaps more instructive to program planners than reports on several wholly successful programs.

8. Work Incentive Program (WIN)

As initially designed in the 1967 amendments to the Social Security Act, the Work Incentive Program (WIN) probably came closer than any other federal effort to making the vocational needs of low income women a primary target. WIN was created to give help exclusively to employable recipients of Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC), the largest sub-group of the population receiving welfare payments. The program was to cover job skills, placement, and other supportive services needed to assist AFDC recipients in becoming permanently employed--and thus no longer in need of welfare. While the original legislation required fathers of dependent children to register immediately for WIN, mothers were also eligible to participate if

they chose. And the original, or WIN I, legislation emphasized training in basic skills instead of confining the government's efforts entirely to preparing welfare recipients for specific jobs.

In 1971, the original legislation was amended. Commonly known as the Talmadge Amendments or WIN II, the new legislation required all mothers with children over six years of age to register for WIN or risk losing welfare support. At the same time, the emphasis of the program was shifted away from job training to simple placement--a transformation that was carried still further in 1973, when additional amendments to the Social Security Act placed even more stringent requirements on welfare recipients to register for WIN as a condition of eligibility for welfare and to accept job placement through WIN employment services. Failure to participate in the WIN program and accept employment can now result in de-registration and a reduction in benefits. Supportive services have also been curtailed. The results have been dramatic. In 1975, WIN participants obtained 170,641 jobs--a drop of only 3 percent from 1974 even though the nation's economy was struggling through the worst recession of the post-war period. The statistics of training--or the lack of it--however, are not so good: in FY 1975 the program had 839,408 registrations, of which 586,060 were either formerly or that year judged eligible for the program geared to future employment. Of these 586,060, 328,000 were "active participants" whose cases were being dealt with contemporaneously, but of these 328,000, only 90,764 received training of any kind. And of the 90,764, less than one-third, or 28,206, were accepted by other government funded

programs for training. Thus 8.5 percent of active participants and 4.8 percent of all participants in the WIN program were "suspended" (the term used to mean assigned) to other manpower programs,[83] while only 27.7 percent of active participants and 15.4 percent of all participants had training of any kind. This figure is for males and females, and unemployed fathers receive preference in suspension for training. These statistical averages, furthermore, mask an enormous variation from state to state. Data on the first 10 months of fiscal 1976 reveal state ranges from 3.8 percent to 71 percent suspended to CETA, depending on the willingness of CETA prime sponsors to accept WIN participants for training. Thus discrimination on the basis of geographic location is a serious problem. A forthcoming study of WIN and CETA in several states quotes the personnel of one state WIN program as saying that out of every 42 WIN registrants, only one is placed as a result of training.[83a]

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[83] These figures are assembled from Win at Work: The Work Incentive Program, Sixth Annual Report to the Congress (March 1976) and Employment and Training Report of the President, op. cit., p. 117. "Suspension" is the word used when, by agreement, a WIN participant is temporarily part of another program, ususally for the purposes of training.

[83a] Lewin Associates report for the HEW Secretary's Advisory Committee on the Rights and Responsibilities of Women, not yet published.

It is doubtful, however, that the emphasis on placement has substantially reduced total welfare payments or placed WIN participants in jobs whose income yield equaled or exceeded welfare. Only a small percentage of those placed in jobs through WIN actually are removed from welfare rolls, and the percentage is decreasing, according to sources in the WIN program. As has been suggested above, the placement of poorly equipped low income women in jobs without prior vocational training and other supportive services is unlikely to yield long-term benefits either to the women or society at large. To begin with, as noted earlier, placement without training is not very cost effective. The following comparison of WIN participants trained (WIN I) and those merely placed (WIN II) illustrates the point:

> WIN I graduates demonstrate a higher labor force participation rate than either WIN I dropouts or WIN II terminees and a markedly lower unemployment rate.... This suggests that WIN I services may have had a longer term pay-ff which has not been adequately gauged heretofore.[84]

[84] Pacific T and TA Corporation, The Pay-Off to Job Search: The Experience of WIN Terminees (Berkeley, California, 1974), p. 4.

Beyond this, however, is a problem. Training only for jobs traditionally open to low income women may not be of lasting value to the participant.

Even if more low income women were getting training, one respected study suggests that the characteristics of the job market entered by most such women will eventually overwhelm and wash out the value of the training.[85] That is, training comes to mean little over time when its recipients must enter a job market which permits them only a narrow range of employment options. This is well illustrated by the experience of WIN participants over time. Virtually all studies indicate that, even when given an uneven choice, people choose to work.[86] Yet even though many WIN participants are placed in jobs, few are able to leave the welfare rolls because wages they receive are so low. It is not hard to see why this is so:

> An analysis of the potential earnings of female-headed families on welfare shows that only one-fourth of non-working mothers had a reasonable chance of increasing their income by as much as $1,000/year by working full time. If these women, on the other hand, had been able to earn as much as men with similar levels of education, job experience, and other characteristics, more than half of them could have improved their economic status significantly by working.[87]

Though the placement rate of WIN participants is high, their rate of retention on the job is low. One study found that fully half of all WIN participants will not be in the same job after 12 months and

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[85] Schiller, op. cit., pp. 24 and 25.

[86] Ibid., pp. 21 and 22.

[87] Ross and Sawhill, op. cit., pp. 174-175.

that 74 percent will still be on AFDC 12 months after job placement.[88] While there is a strong flow from welfare to work, the evidence shows, there is also a strong current flowing in the opposite direction.[89] As one WIN administrator put it, the program is operating a revolving door.

WIN has developed a nationwide training program to sensitize its staff to helping WIN participants find better-paying jobs in non-traditional areas. The workshops were voluntary and were held this past year.

WIN has also had several exemplary programs for training participants in the environmental field and in railroad work.

But these programs are few and small in scope. In general, the present lack of emphasis on basic vocational training and supportive services undermines the program's ability to accomplish its fundamental purpose. Probably no other government program has focused so clearly on the needs of low income working women. Nor does any other program demonstrate so clearly the consequences of failing to address those needs soundly.

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[88] Raphael J. Salmon, Analysis of WIN I and WIN II Program Performance (Washington, D. C., U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Social and Rehabilitation Service, 1973), p. 50, quoting Auerbach Associates, An Impact Evaluation of the Work Incentive Program, 1972.

[89] Barry L. Friedman and Leonard J. Hausman, Work and Welfare Patterns in Low Income Families (Waltham, Brandeis University, 1975), p. vii.

9. Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA)

The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA), passed in December, 1973, was seen by Congress as an all-purpose vehicle for rescuing the federal government from a morass of job training programs enacted piecemeal at different times and for different purposes over the preceding decade or more.[90] At the same time, CETA was an enormous mechanism for transmitting federal dollars to local governments for use in vocational training and job development. The earliest of CETA's piebald ancestors was manpower legislation passed early in the 1960's in response to concern over workers whose jobs might be made obsolete by advancing technology. This concern was almost immediately swallowed up by the War on Poverty, which produced two pieces of basic enabling legislation for manpower training--the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 and the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964. The training programs that sprang from these two acts were aimed chiefly at solving hard-core unemployment, especially that of the inner cities, through training and job development. There was also an effort made to provide short-term jobs for inner city youths as a means of coping with the "long, hot summers." In 1971, as the nation's economy entered a downturn, the legislative mandate was altered once more, this time to embrace efforts to combat short-term unemployment generally. As a result of all this changing and

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[90] An excellent summary of the history of manpower programs, including the beginning of the CETA program, can be found in Sar A. Levitan and Joyce K. Zickler: The Quest for Federal Manpower Partnership (Cambridge, Massachusetts, Harvard University Press, 1974).

expanding of manpower legislation, the federal government by 1973 was entangled in a series of categorical programs with diverse but sometimes overlapping goals. Determined to solve all of the resulting problems with one stroke, Congress enacted CETA. The strategy was to channel virtually all of the federal government's manpower funds to local governments and allow them to sort out their priorities in the light of their differing job market problems and population needs.

The act superseded almost all existing manpower programs, although there were important exceptions: the WIN program for welfare recipients, the vocational education and rehabilitation programs, and programs for retraining veterans. CETA also provides federal direction for job programs aimed at certain target groups, such as Indians, migrant workers, and participants in the Job Corps. In all, nearly $2 billion in federal funds pass through CETA program offices in Washington to more than 500 "prime sponsors" at the regional and local levels. Prime sponsors can be cities or counties of 100,000 or more population, "consortia" made up of cities and their surrounding counties--a grouping pattern which the federal government seeks to encourage by rewarding those who adopt it with extra money--or so-called "balance of states" (that is, states covering areas which have not otherwise been organized to become prime sponsors).

CETA's major funding provisions, aside from a handful of Title III and IV programs directed from Washington, are Title I, grants to states and localities for flexible manpower services including training, employment, counseling, testing and placements; Title II, public service employment for localities in which the rate of unemployment exceeds 6.5 percent;

Socioeconomic Characteristics of Persons Enrolled, Terminated,[1] and Placed[2] Under CETA Titles I, II, and VI, Fiscal Year 1975

(Percent)

Characteristic	Title I			Title II			Title VI		
	Enrollments	Terminations	Placements	Enrollments	Terminations	Placements	Enrollments	Terminations	Placements
Sex:									
Men	54.4	55.4	57.7	65.8	68.3	67.8	70.2	73.9	78.5
Women	45.6	44.6	42.3	34.2	31.7	32.2	29.8	26.1	21.5
Age:									
Under 22 years	61.7	60.2	41.2	23.7	27.3	20.9	21.4	21.5	17.6
22 to 44 years	32.1	33.6	49.7	62.9	60.8	67.1	64.8	66.6	71.8
45 years and over	6.1	6.1	9.0	13.4	12.0	12.0	13.8	11.8	10.6
Education:									
8 years and under	13.3	12.8	9.7	9.4	13.1	7.1	8.4	8.3	7.2
9 to 11 years	47.6	48.9	32.[illegible]	18.3	23.2	16.0	18.2	20.8	18.4
12 years	29.3	29.5	43.[illegible]	42.5	40.3	44.9	43.7	43.2	46.5
Over 12 years	9.8	8.8	14.[illegible]	29.8	23.3	31.9	29.6	27.7	27.9
Minority status:[3]									
Nonminority	42.9	42.1	[illegible]3	50.1	43.3	58.8	59.1	55.6	67.8
Minority	57.1	57.9	55.7	49.9	56.7	41.2	40.9	44.4	32.2
Economically disadvantaged	77.3	76.2	69.3	48.3	[illegible]6.4	44.2	43.8	46.8	33.8

[1] Persons terminated: Total number of participants who have left the CETA program for any reason.

[2] Persons placed: Total number of participants who have left the CETA program and entered unsubsidized employment.

[3] Minority status adjusted to include 93.3 percent of Spanish Americans as white (nonminority), 5 percent as black (minority), and the remainder as other (minority).

NOTE: Detail may not add to totals because of rounding.

and Title VI, additional public service employment authority established in 1974. Title I funds are allocated according to a formula based on the relative percentage of the number of unemployed (37.5 percent), the number of low income persons in their local population (12.5 percent), and the prior year's manpower allotment (50 percent). Furthermore, the law allows some 20 percent of Title I money to be redirected in purposes similar to Titles II and VI, as well as vice versa.

The degree to which the sprawling CETA programs focus on low income women is difficult to determine. A compilation of prime sponsor reports indicates that women as a whole comprised 42.2 percent of all CETA participants in FY 1975[91]--roughly their percentage in the labor force but lower than their percentage of all the unemployed.[92] Women made up 45.6 percent of Title I participants, but only 34.2 percent of those in Title II and 29.8 percent of participants in Title VI, the programs which have been most heavily used to get temporarily unemployed men back to work. Again, according to prime sponsor reports, the economically disadvantaged have made up 69.4 percent of CETA participants--77.3 percent of those

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[91]Prime sponsor data reported here are from 1976 Employment and Training Report of the President, transmitted to the U.S. Congress, June 1976, p. 102, as well as U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Comprehensive Employment Training Act, Review and Oversight, Part I: Background and First Year Results, December 5, 1975, p. 32.

[92]In 1975, there were 37,087,000 women in the labor force. They represented 39% of the labor force. 45% of married women were in the labor force. 40% of widowed, divorced or separated were in the labor force. 45% of white women were in it and 49% of black women were in the labor force. Women were 45% of the unemployed. U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, Employment and Earnings, Jan. 1976, Table 2.

in Title I, 48.3 percent of Title II participants, and 43.6 percent of those in Title VI.

Doubt has been cast on the prime sponsor data, however, by an independent sampling of CETA participants, the Continuous Longitudinal Manpower Survey (CLMS). Data on sex proportions are comparable; CLMS reports 44 percent of participants were women, compared with 42.2 percent reported in prime sponsor data--a discrepancy explainable by sampling error. But the figures on economically disadvantaged participants are strikingly different. Prime sponsors' reports, taken in aggregate, indicate that 69.4 percent of CETA participants are economically disadvantaged; CLMS sampling data on the other hand puts this percentage at only 57.[93] There is also a disturbing possibility that the prime sponsor data itself may inherently suggest greater participation by low income women than is actually the case. Prime sponsors are required to collect data on women as a group and on the economically disadvantaged as a group, but not on the breakdown of economically disadvantaged women. Thus, as outlined above, a serious under-representation of low income women may be masked in the statistical lumping. If CETA programs were dealing predominantly with a low income population, then one could assume economically disadvantaged women were being served along with the men, but this is not the case. And there is an ominous indicator of what the actual situation may be in the percentage of AFDC women being served by CETA--only 12 percent in the first half of FY 1976,[94] and a mere

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[93] Westat, Inc., Continuous Longitudinal Manpower Survey Report prepared for the U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Program Evaluation, May 1976, Report No. 3, pp. 3-6.

[94] Internal CETA memo, based on March 20, 1976 computer run. There is nothing either in law or federal regulations which requires CETA prime sponsors to accommodate WIN registrants, though they are encouraged to do so.

6 percent of Title II and Title VI participants in FY 1975.[95] The legislative formula for funds distribution may be at the root of the problem, since it weights unemployment 3 times as heavily (37 vs. 12 percent) as low income as a qualification. In the words of a National Academy of Sciences study of CETA, "States whose economic programs are characterized by low income rather than unemployment were relative losers under CETA."[96] Prime sponsors have wide latitude in their choice of target groups. So far, few seem to have focused on female family heads or other kinds of low income women.[96a]

Another possible danger for low income women is that the formula for funds distribution, based partially on the previous year's allocation, may slip as much as 10 percentage points each year as localities shift away from help for the disadvantaged. This already began to happen with urban-suburban consortia. The funds shifted to the suburbs only a few percentage points in the first full year of operation. But they can shift a percentage of the percentage each year.[97]

Yet a third threat to training for low income women in CETA is the controversial new federal regulation that henceforth program "success" will be measured by costs per unsubsidized placement. Disadvantaged women in need of training will not be cost effective under this regulation.

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[95] U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Comprehensive Employment Training Act Review and Oversight, Part I: "Background and First Year Results," December 1975, p. 30.

[96] William Mirengoff and Lester Rindler, The Comprehensive Employment and Training Act: An Interim Report (Washington, D. C., National Academy of Sciences, 1976), p. 38.

[96a] Lewin Associates, op. cit., not yet published.

[97] Mirengoff and Rindler, op. cit., p. 44.

Insofar as CETA is doing training, what is it likely to be? Since Titles II and VI are primarily job development programs, we will look only at Title I, which the Labor Department classifies as a "skills development" program. In FY 1975, prime sponsors spent only 31 percent of their funds on classroom training--the kind of training research indicates is most beneficial to low income women--and 43 percent of their funds, on the other hand, for work experience programs such as summer and short-term work projects--the least effective efforts so far as the future earnings of low income women are concerned.[98] In fact, the President's Employment and Training Report of 1976 refers to work experience programs as being for the purpose of "retention in or return to school rather than job placement."[99] The percent of funds spent on training would be much smaller, of course, if Title II and VI figures were included.

For women, there is another cruel twist: insofar as they receive any classroom training at all, the evidence indicates it is likely to be more preparation for the jobs they already hold or are qualified for. One study found that 92 percent of the women enrolled for training at skills centers had previously worked in clerical, health-related, or sales occupations; of these, 93 percent were enrolled for training in the same occupational categories as their previous jobs.[100]

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[98] U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, Comprehensive Employment Training Act Review and Oversight, op. cit., p. 25. The most recent figures, released in September 1976, show this trend to be continuing. More people were served by the CETA program. In fact, more females, youth and disadvantaged were served. However, whereas only 485,000 participants got jobs, 647,700 went back to school or joined the military. Thus it looks as though a very high proportion of Title I funds for the disadvantaged is for work experience programs for youth in summer. (See Office of Administration and Management, Division of Information Analysis and Systems Development, September 1976.)

[99] 1976 Employment and Training Report of the President, op. cit., p. 103.

[100] Mark Battle Associates, op. cit., Vol. III, p. 6; Nicholas M. Kiefer, op. cit., p. 70.

Nor does the literature indicate that women who seek job training in a broader range of employment possibilities are likely to be sympathetically received. A very recent study of counsellors and staff members at CETA and manpower skills centers found that 98 percent of the staffers were male, and that a large number of them opposed entry of women into non-traditional jobs. Only 12 percent of the instructors had taken part in a workshop on the vocational training of women; 61 percent thought women in positions of authority were "disruptive."[101]

CETA's national office has an opportunity to press its local prime sponsors on the training of women in non-traditional occupations, through use of a Technical Assistance Guide (a TAG) to outline not only what should be done but how it might best be accomplished. To date the Office of Comprehensive Employment Development has delayed in doing this, though it has been discussed within the program office.

In sum, the literature suggests that low income women may be more responsive to job training and more dependent on it for success than men, yet they are receiving very little from government programs. And what little they do get only reinforces the traditional role of women in the labor market. In general, little is being done to increase the ability of low income women to obtain higher paying, higher status jobs.

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[101] CONSAD Research Corporation, Women in New Careers, prepared for the Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, March 1976.

10. Related Labor Programs

While Titles I, II, and VI encompass by far the most significant of the federal job training programs, there are two others in the Department of Labor which merit consideration because of their potential for opening the way for training women in non-traditional jobs and because they have links to HEW's Vocational Education and Training program. The two are the Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training, and the Apprenticeship Outreach program.

The Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training concerns itself primarily with promoting apprenticeship programs with employers and the craft unions, chiefly in the crafts and building trades. Traditionally, the Bureau has shown little interest in raising the number of women enrolled in apprenticeship programs. This attitude has been facilitated by the fact that federal regulations prohibiting discrimination and requiring establishment of goals and timetables for accommodating victims of discrimination were written so as to apply only to racial minorities and not to women. An effort to change these regulations to include discrimination on the basis of sex has not yet succeeded. A change would be a significant spur to the recruitment of women. The Bureau has, however, taken an important step so far as working women are concerned. Beginning with calendar year 1974, it began to report statistics on apprenticeships by sex. The situation revealed by the new data was shocking and may become a major force for change in the Bureau's attitudes. Of the 291,049 persons in apprentice programs at the end of 1974, only 2,562 were women. That is, women were only about 0.9 percent of those enrolled in a government sponsored work program although they

U.S. Department of Labor
Employment and Training Administration
State and National Apprenticeship System (SNAPS)
Females by Selected Occupational Groups
Reporting Period: 01 Jan thru 30 Jun 1975

Run Date 06/04/76
Report #3

	Total Apprentices	Total Less INA	Total	%
AIR COND & REFRIGERATION MECH	1661	1628	7	.4
AIRCRAFT MECHANICS	572	571	8	1.4
AUTO & RELATED MECHANICS	8531	8515	21	.2
AUTO & RELATED BODY REPAIRMAN	2016	2011	2	.1
BARBERS & BEAUTICIANS	911	910	496	54.5
BOILERMAKERS	2368	2295	8	.3
BOOKBINDERS & BINDERY WORKERS	865	864	147	17.0
BRICKLAYERS STONE & TILE SETS	8199	8162	6	.1
BUTCHERS & MEAT CUTTERS	3508	3507	87	2.5
CABINETMAKERS & MILLMEN	1741	1739	22	1.3
CARMEN	1634	1634	0	.0
CARPENTERS	38022	37907	141	.4
CEMENT MASONS	3083	3041	9	.3
COMPOSITORS	1391	1387	135	9.7
COOKS & BAKERS	1961	1954	116	5.9
DRAFTSMEN	1177	1176	41	3.5
ELECTRICAL WORKERS	5457	5438	38	.7
ELECTRICIANS	31793	31621	104	.3
ELECTRONIC TECHNICIANS	1550	1437	80	5.6
FLOOR COVERERS	1545	1545	2	.1
GLAZIERS	1455	1455	0	.0
INDUSTRIAL TECHNICIANS	815	815	43	5.3
INSULATION WORKERS	1869	1837	5	.3
LATHERS	1324	1322	0	.0
LINEMEN, LIGHT & POWER	4728	4712	71	1.5
LITHOGRAPHERS, PHOTOENGRAVERS	740	739	20	2.7
MACHINE SET-UP & OPERATORS	1232	1219	9	.7
MACHINISTS	14649	14338	136	.9
MAINTENANCE MECHANICS	3737	3734	35	.9
MECHANICS & REPAIRMEN, NEC	3544	3490	24	.7
MEDICAL & DENTAL TECHNICIANS	869	868	69	7.9
MILLWRIGHTS	4335	4329	9	.2
MOLDERS & COREMAKERS	770	754	2	.3
OFFICE MACHINE SERVICEMEN	2389	2389	32	1.3
OPERATING ENGINEERS	6072	6033	14	.2
OPTICAL WORKERS	716	714	30	4.2
ORNAMENTAL IRON WORKERS	370	370	1	.3
PAINTERS	6655	6631	65	1.0
PATTERNMAKERS	940	935	14	1.5

	Total Apprentices	Total Less INA	Total	%
PIPEFITTERS	12041	11823	92	.8
PIPEFITTERS-STEAMFITTERS	1184	1184	1	.1
PLASTERERS	1139	1138	4	.4
PLUMBERS	18749	18689	23	.1
PRFSSMAN	2571	2566	20	.8
PRINTING & PUBLISHING WORKERS	2037	2035	79	3.9
RADIO & TV REPAIRMEN	1036	1035	7	.7
ROOFERS	3849	3845	5	.1
SHEET METAL WORKERS	12001	11921	41	.3
SPRINKLER FITTERS	3316	2882	0	.0
STATIONARY ENGINEERS	1518	1517	4	.3
STRUCTURAL STEEL WORKERS	9130	9130	9	.1
TAPERS & DRY-WALL INSTALLERS	987	987	19	1.9
TOOLMAKERS & DIEMAKERS	11345	11303	104	.9
MISCELLANEOUS TRADES NEC	11548	11225	328	2.9
U.S. TOTAL	267645	265306	2785	1.0

comprise almost half the nation's total workforce. Furthermore, women are not represented at all in some 900 of the 1,000 skilled trades registered with BAT. The need for improvement of these apprenticeship figures is all the more apparent when one examines alternative routes for women into skilled trades. In the words of a recent report of the Civil Rights Commission: "Direct admission to journeyman status remains effectively closed to minorities and women. Meanwhile, direct admission remains open to white males,"[102] who receive training from male relatives and family friends.

Since BAT has only recently begun to move in the direction of offering substantial help to low income women, it has not yet realized its substantial potential for helping such women move out of dead-end, subsistence jobs and into work with substantial opportunities for advancement. A handful of numbers tell the dismal story to date: only two apprenticeship trades out of 415 have more than 6 percent female enrollment--the bookbinders with 15.3 percent, and predictably, the beauticians with 44.4 percent--and 60 percent of all the trades have no female apprentices at all.[103]

The Bureau is also presently wrestling with the question as to whether to require apprenticeship programs to revise age-at-entry limits upwards. California has already changed the law for its apprenticeship programs under the threat of legal action. Since

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[102] U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, op. cit., pp. 149-150.

[103] 1976 Employment and Training Report of the President, op. cit., Table F-16, p. 353. Also, U.S. Department of Labor, Employment and Training Administration, ETA Interchange, Vol. II, No. 4, April 1976, p. 12.

women on the average choose skilled crafts somewhat later in life than men[104] this is an important matter to those who advocate the interests of low income women.

The Apprenticeship Outreach program, one of the Ongoing Programs of Demonstrated Effectiveness funded under Title III of CETA, finances efforts to encourage the admission of minorities and women to apprenticeship programs, particularly in the construction industry. Within the limits of its funds, it has financed some very productive models for women's programs. It focuses heavily on training for employability. Until 1974, this program concerned itself chiefly with the problems of minority males. In 1971 and 1973, contracts were initiated with two women's groups to promote opportunities for women in non-traditional jobs; one group was called Better Jobs for Women and was sponsored by the YWCA in Denver, Colorado, and the other was Advocates for Women in Apprenticeships, based in San Francisco.

In 1975 a 2-year grant was provided to the state of Wisconsin's Department of Labor, Industry and Human Relations to promote training in hiring of women through apprenticeship programs in the Milwaukee area and to develop a model program for use by other state apprenticeship agencies in training their staffs to help both women and employers. CETA Title III funds were also used to develop female components within several of the major AOP projects already experienced in preparing minority males for apprenticeships. The three organizations are the Recruitment and Training Program, the

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[104] See Appendix A.

National Urban League, and the Mexican-American Opportunity Foundation; together they are to cover 18 cities. It is too early to tell how successful these efforts will be in terms of final long-term placements. In addition, all regular AOP projects have been directed to make efforts toward developing non-traditional jobs for women through their recruitment and job development activities. It remains to be seen how effective this directive will be.

The Job Corps, one of the CETA programs managed directly by the federal government, serves the disadvantaged by definition, but throughout most of its life only about 26 percent of its participants were women and they were served in training programs segregated by sex--a policy almost guaranteed to exclude low income women from training that might have expanded their vocational prospects. Now, in response to direct Congressional prodding, the Job Corps has raised its co-educational training centers from 6 to 22 out of 60 and reports it will raise its proportion of female participants to 33 percent by the end of 1977. At co-educational centers, all courses are open to men and women alike and women are encouraged to learn non-traditional trades.

	HEW					DOL					
	BOAE	Career Ed.	WEEA	NIE	FIPSE	WIN	CETA I	CETA II	CETA VI	CETA III	CETA IV	BAT
Focus on low income women			(X)	X						(X)	(X)	
Focus on all women			X	X								
Focus on all disadvantaged	(X) Voc. Ed. X Adult Ed.					X				X	X	
Places for employment at present level of accomplishment and level of expectation						X		X	X			
Trains higher level of accomplishment and broader range of expectation	X	X	X		X		(X)			X	X	X

Many government programs deal with training but not of low income women. Some programs deal with low income women but do not train them. The above chart indicates which programs focus on the needs of low income women (as opposed to all women or all low income people). It also shows which programs deal with these women at present capacities and expectations, and which seek to expand their capacities or expectations. A "perfect" score would be a "X" on the top and bottom lines. No program has this. An "(X)" shows partial involvement. The chart is useful merely as a rough indicator.

D. Conclusions and Recommendations:

The nature and extent of the disparities between low income women and those more favored in American society are now apparent. Current federal programs are not causing the situation to change very much, nor very fast.

The Committee considers the problems of job training and employment for low income women to be a high priority and plans to continue its investigation of this topic in Fiscal Year 1977 through hearings, discussions and further research. The problem will be considered on its own terms and also in the context of the Committee's concern for the multiple-problems of the single-parent, head-of-household and its analysis of the present welfare system. When all of these studies are complete, the Committee will present a coordinated set of legislative recommendations to the Secretary.

For the present, based on the findings in this report, the Committee offers the following recommendations:

1. General Recommendations:

a. The design of data collection and analysis systems should be modified so that the plight of low income women can be better understood. Data should be gathered by sex-by-income as well as by sex-by-race.

b. Programs dealing with low income women should gather information in a way that allows distinct subgroups of low income women--e.g. highly educated vs. poorly educated; long-term poor vs. temporarily poor--to be analyzed separately.

c. (1) Federal programs should redefine "success" in employment-related programs. The measure of success should take into account both starting wage level and potential future for advancement.

(2) Job training and job placement programs should be rewarded for the quality of placements, and for the degree of difficulty of the placement (to prevent "creaming"--that is, placing only the clients who are easiest to place.)

d. Evaluations of job training and placement should be required to have a minimum of two years--and preferably five years-- of follow-up data on program participants. Federal money should be invested in fewer but longer-term evaluations rather than in a large number of potentially misleading evaluations which investigate only first placements or first six months post-program participant experience.

e. Local prime sponsors, Work Incentive Program offices, vocational education agencies and grantees should be required to report program data to be consistent with the above listed objectives. States should be held fully accountable for complete and accurate reporting of data.

f. Government employees who deal with job training and placement programs should be required to participate in training programs to sensitize them to the special needs and problems of low income women.

g. Federal officials should actively monitor local job training and placement programs to assure compliance with legislation prohibiting sex and race discrimination.

h. Studies of low income women should be a priority target for discretionary research funds in programs dealing with employment, job training, apprenticeship, vocational education and career education.

i. Demonstration projects which deal with training low income women for placing them in traditionally male jobs that pay higher wages and provide more potential for advancement than traditionally female jobs should be a priority target for funding by discretionary programs.

j. Communicating information about successful programs which place low income women in non-traditional jobs should be a high priority for dissemination funds.

2. Recommendations for Specific Programs:

a. Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education (Office of Education): The Bureau should take a forceful leadership role in assisting state and local education agencies in fulfilling the spirit and the letter of the anti-sex stereotyping provisions of the new vocational education law.

b. Office of Career Education (Office of Education): Career Education personnel should continue and expand their efforts to foster a concern with problems of sex stereotyping among state and local educators.

c. Education and Work Program and Women's Research Program (National Institute of Education): should continue their emphasis on obstacles for employment and advancement of women and increase their focus on low income women as a special target group.

d. Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training (Department of Labor): should modify the federal regulations for apprenticeship programs so that women as well as minority group members will be considered as a group requiring goals and timetables for increased participation in apprenticeship programs.

e. Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training (Department of Labor): should eliminate age restrictions for apprenticeship programs.

f. Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) (Department of Labor): should publish and disseminate a Technical Assistance Guide (TAG) for local prime sponsors for training women in non-

traditional jobs. The booklet should include information, including case studies, of the lessons learned from successful demonstration programs for placing women in non-traditional jobs.

g. Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA): should immediately revoke its new rule that local prime sponsors will be measured for success in terms of lowest cost per placement in the private sector. This rule forces prime sponsors to ignore the neediest clients.

h. Comprehensive Employment and Training Act Planning Councils: should be required to have as members women who are informed advocates of increased opportunities for women.

i. The National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee (the joint HEW-Labor committee established by the vocational education section of the Education Amendments of 1976):

(1) should include as its members persons who are knowledgeable about and sensitive to the special problems of low income women, and

(2) should include as a priority gathering and making available information on low income women to all relevant programs in both agencies at the federal, state and local level.

j. Each State Occupational Information Coordinating Committee:

(1) should include in its membership persons who are knowledgeable about and sensitive to the special problems of low income women, and

(2) should include as a priority gathering and making available information on low income women to all relevant programs at the state and local level.

k. The Coordinating Committee on Research in Vocational Education:

(1) Should include in its membership persons who are knowledgeable about and sensitive to the special problems of low income women, and

(2) should include as a priority, increasing the amount or research devoted to the needs of this target group.

l. The Work Incentive Program (Department of Labor and Health, Education and Welfare): The legislative mandate of WIN should be revised in the following ways:

(1) training should be re-emphasized, specifically training that would allow women to reach beyond traditional, low paying, sex stereotyped jobs. The training should be provided either directly through WIN or through systematic coordination of WIN with CETA and vocational education programs;

(2) the priority given in the law to AFDC fathers, requiring that father's needs for training be met before mothers' needs are considered, should be revoked so that both sexes have equal access to training opportunities.

3. Recommendation Concerning Structural Change: The Committee has made the above recommendations in view of the current structure of the Departments of Health, Education and Welfare and Labor. However, in reviewing the programs covered in this paper, the Committee has concluded that the needs of low income women for job training and placement that makes a real contribution to improving their lot and making them self-supporting will not be fully served until

functions now filled by several separate agencies and programs are integrated into a single, coherent entity.

More specifically, the vocational training programs of our schools and colleges (at least insofar as they are part of a Federal program), the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act training programs, the Work Incentive Program placement activities, and the various smaller programs related to these areas should be structurally linked so that one agency, one public official, can be held accountable for their integration and coordination.

APPENDIX A

WOMEN IN NON-TRADITIONAL JOBS[1]

Last year, the 50 State Employment Services placed an estimated total of 15,000 women, out of 1.3 million female job placements, in non-traditional jobs.[2] This figure (1%) is a useful indicator of the probable proportion of low income women generally who have been placed in non-traditional jobs. However, there are a growing number of pilot programs around the country for training and placing women in non-traditional jobs. Some of these prepare women for the apprenticeship programs in the skilled trades, both in construction and industrial work. Others place women in blue-collar positions which are less highly skilled but are nevertheless high paying and traditionally closed to women.

A review of a number of these programs reveals the following composite picture of a successful program:

1. It is by-and-large in a metropolitan area with a non-stagnant economy. It actively engages in job development with local employers who at least are not cutting back their work force.

2. Its existence is due largely to national Department of Labor funding. (A few programs are beginning to be funded by local CETA funds, however. One is supported by HEW's FIPSE.)

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[1] We define "non-traditional" as any occupation which has heretofore been filled with 80% or more men and 20% or fewer women. In this study, white collar and professional occupations are almost entirely excluded.

[2] U.S. Department of Labor, Office of Information, News Release (March 1976).

3. It focuses on high paying blue collar jobs. Sometimes these are supported through the national On-the-Job Training (OJT) program by which employers are encouraged to hire and train minorities. Sometimes they are for apprenticeship programs, both in industry and in construction and technical trades (typically apprenticed through the unions themselves). Almost all the jobs require a period of job-site training in the acquisition of a skill.

4. The successful program provides highly individualized job preparation for its participants, though it does not train for skills themselves. This is partly because it screens out applicants for whom an across-the-board grounding in basic skills is necessary. It is also because the jobs for which participants are being prepared are so diverse. It does, however, engage in counseling on the full range of job possibilities, psychological preparation for entry into a non-traditional job, tutorial for whatever specific entry examination may be required by union or employer (including tests of physical prowess), and development of interview skills.

5. Its potentially most successful participant is a woman in her mid to late 20's who has already had some job experience in an unsatisfying traditional occupation, who has family responsibilities (in many cases, a female family head with dependents), who has, on the average, a high school diploma or GED certificate, who is cooperative but self-confident. She might be a college graduate. She might be an AFDC recipient, depending on how actively the program has recruited among the disadvantaged.

6. A successful program carefully matches a participant to the skill for which she is to be trained. (For example, mathematical

ability, manual dexterity, physical strength, as the case may be, are encouraged but also sought.) The program selects women for entry into skilled crafts and apprenticeships who see their commitment to a career and who are willing to take other short-term work while waiting for an opening sometimes as much as two years). Its selection of women for less skilled, industrial non-traditional jobs is less rigorous.

7. A successful program depends heavily on high quality and dedication of individual employment counselors.

8. The successful program tries to place women in groups but is prepared for the problems faced by a woman placed alone. It locates other women in the same kind of job (whether or not in the same company) to provide emotional and technical support as well as useful tips and coping strategies, to the newly-hired. It has follow-up support for placements, encouraging them to phone with problems, making on-site visits, having jam sessions for newly placed, especially one-of-a-kind placements, to share their experiences. Since staff is often limited, the program uses participants to support each other as much as possible, though it recognizes that some women attracted to non-traditional programs are not "joiners."

9. The program has at least doubled its participants' wages by virtue of the new job, and it looks forward to having many participants receiving, or expecting to receive soon, three or even four times their previous wages.

10. In the case of industrial (apprenticeship and other) placements, it makes follow-up checks on the employers to be sure the apprenticeship did become available to the woman or that promotion did, or will shortly, occur.

11. Given these general features, or most of them, a program generally can count on a retention rate of 80% among the women it places. (This compares favorably to retention rates of men. It compares very favorably with retention rates of men in apprenticeship programs (50%)).[3]

The following pages will include a brief description or listing of some of the more prominent, typical or interesting programs, as well as a more complete listing. However, before looking at individual programs, we will mention one other avenue for change in the employment of low income women. This is the participation of women in labor unions, which has not been previously discussed, since it was beyond the scope of this report.

The most obvious fact about women and unions is the low degree to which women have utilized the labor movement to further their ends. As this report stated in the beginning, only 10.3% of females in the work force are organized, as compared with almost 30% of males. Not only are wages of unionized women in blue collar occupations significantly higher than that for non-unionized women,[4] but job stability and fringe benefits are more readily available to unionized women. Yet for whatever reason, women seem to have been reluctant to join unions. One reason for reluctance has undoubtedly been the perception that unions are men's turf. The figures on the number of women in positions of power within labor unions does little

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[3] The authors are indebted to individual programs for this composite picture. They are also indebted to Sandra Meyers of Advocates for Women (San Francisco) for insights provided by her forthcoming study of non-traditional programs for the state of California.

[4] U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, The Challenge Ahead: Equal Rights in the Referral Unions, Washington, D. C., May 1976, p. 9.

to dispel this perception. As of 1974, even the 24 unions with at least 50,000 women members had only 6 women out of 187 national officers and appointed officials. In other words, only .03% of their leaders were women.[5]

The Coalition of Labor Union Women (CLUW), organized in 1974 and open to all women in unions, is the single most visible group working to raise the low profile of women in the labor movement. CLUW now has over 5,000 women in 56 local chapters. Though its first year of existence was marred by conflict at the national level between union and women's groups as to the appropriate forums for action and speed of action, its local chapters have been energetically providing themselves with the skills, confidence and motivation to speak out in meetings and run for office within their own unions.[6] Furthermore, at the national level, the Coalition has created task forces to deal with problems facing labor in general, women in general and women within unions. Specifically, the task forces for Occupational Safety and Health, for Contract Language and for Apprenticeship Programs for Women will be addressing themselves to issues within the scope of this report. The task forces are only now starting to go. However, they show promise of leading women, within the labor movement and outside.

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[5] Ibid., p. 32.

[6] It is interesting to note that Wertheimer and Nelson found, in their study of women in six New York City labor unions, that though women ran for office much less than men, their rank and file were more active than the male rank and file. They voted more frequently and attended more meetings. They even filed more grievances (p. 87).

DESCRIPTION OF INDIVIDUAL PROGRAMS:

Women in Apprenticeship (Wisconsin)

State Department of Industry, Labor and Human Relations
Madison, Wisconsin
608-266-7557
(Patricia Mapp)

This program, sponsored by the Office of National Programs of the Department of Labor, was a pioneer in several ways. First of all it was the first program of national note, operated from 1970 to 1973. It raised the number of women in apprenticeable trades in Wisconsin from 58 in 1971 to 199 in 1973 (excluding cosmetologists, who are traditionally women). It had a 76% retention rate, compared to 56% for men in comparable apprenticeship programs. It recognized, dealt with and publicized many of the barriers to women in industrial "shops," so that women hired on at the bottom of career ladders in companies would hear of and be encouraged to apply for apprenticeable positions on the "shop floor." Furthermore, this program was one of the first to identify the discriminatory effect of the Dictionary of Occupational Titles and push for their change. (This change has been made at a national level.) The program also identified the discriminatory effect of excluding some traditional female occupations (such as day care attendant) from the list of apprenticeable jobs. The median age for women in the project was 31. Only 1/3 of the women were under 25. The Wisconsin program presently runs a pilot program for WIN participants in non-traditional jobs.

Better Jobs for Women

1545 Tremont Place
Denver, Colorado 80202
303-893-3534
(Sandra Caruthers)

This is the oldest continuous program specifically organized to put women into non-traditional jobs. It has been funded by the Office of National Programs of the Department of Labor. It began in 1971 and has placed 319 women into skilled trades. Areas of placement have been in industrial trades, mechanical and technical trades, work with moving vehicles and (in the past 2 years), the building and construction trades. This program feels there is no one "ideal" applicant, since so few women have been exposed to non-traditional work. Many women become interested at about 30 years of age, when they realize they will have to work all their lives. Supportive services include money for temporary child support during training, transportation, books, tools and equipment. Job readiness training is individualized and includes emphasis on physical fitness. Follow-up is on-site visitation and group meetings for mutual support. Retention rate for the five years is 80%. In 1975, 50% of placements were minority women; 30% were sole supporters of households; 80% had been unemployed previous to the program; 40% were on public assistance; more than 50% had high school diplomas. Average income of trainees has doubled at job entry. (Average starting salary is $4.92/hour and can rise to between $6 and $10/hour). This program has roughly 50 requests per month for information about its activities and clearly is a visible pilot program.

Advocates for Women

256 Sutter Street
San Francisco, California
415-391-4870
(Jennabeth Story, Sandra Meyers)

This program, based in San Francisco, is three years old and is supported by the Office of National Programs of the Department of Labor. It now has four offices in northern California, each with a white collar and a blue collar program. One program run out of San Francisco, called Women in Apprenticeship, places women exclusively in apprenticeship positions. (This group was instrumental in effective changes in state regulations requiring affirmative action on women in apprenticeship programs.) The apprenticeship program has placed 80 women in apprenticeship positions and serviced many others now waiting for apprenticeship openings to occur. A number of women are placed in entry-level jobs in industry to wait for industrial apprenticeship openings. The program has found construction unions easier to approach than employers, since they are organized by craft instead of a "shop by shop" basis. Follow-up support is principally a network of women in similar jobs. Retention rate is 70-75%. The program has a track record with unions and industry such that it is about to split off from Advocates for Women and form a board composed of those two groups.

Labor Education Advancement Program (LEAP)

National Urban League
500 E. 62nd Street
New York, New York
212-644-6500
(Bernice David; Gwendolyn Poole)

This program places women in construction and non-construction apprenticeship programs in 15 cities. It also places women in non-apprenticeship programs which pay well, are non-traditional and promise upward mobility. Many industries have been responsive, due to the requirement that they initiate affirmative action programs. Thus the bulk of placements are in industry. As a result, LEAP has placed 800 women since its women's component began in 1974. Of these, 16% are in apprenticeable trades. Though the Urban League is primarily a black organization, this program has also been popular with white women, who are not excluded. The LEAP program feels the need of more counseling of male supervisors and co-workers. Training is tailored to fit the needs of the applicant. Follow-up counseling is intense. The League does not yet have follow-up figures but has the impression that retention rate is very high.

Recruitment and Training Program (RTP)

162 Fifth Avenue
New York, New York 10010
212-691-0660
(Alexis Herman)

This program, funded by the Office of National Programs of the Department of Labor, has been similar to the Urban League in its activities on behalf of minority workers. It also has opened a women's program, at government request (Apprenticeship Outreach Program, DOL). Since May 1974, it has served women particularly in Boston, Cleveland, New York and Evansville, Indiana. This last is just getting started. Over 90% of women served are minorities. All RTP offices serve women but not solely. Women are often placed in non-traditional work through RTP in Pascagoula, Mississippi, since the shipyards have been suffering a labor shortage. In its four cities, 445 women have been placed in "non-traditional" jobs. However, in Boston and Evansville these are almost entirely in professional jobs. In New York and Cleveland, more than 30% have been given industrial placements. Counselors try to interest potential trainees in non-traditional employment at time of intake. Retention rate is 85 to 90%. Women in RTP are often "too old" for apprenticeship programs (i.e., in their late 20's).

Mexican-American Opportunity Foundation

670 Monterey Pass Road
Monterey Park, California 91754
213-269-2000
(Dionicio Morales)

This program, funded by the Apprenticeship Outreach Program of the Office of National Programs of the Department of Labor, is recruiting and placing Mexican-American women in apprenticeship positions in the Los Angeles area. The program only began in February 1976 and so has no solid data as yet. Its initial recruitment effort brought many more applicants than it could handle, even though the cultural barriers against women in non-traditional jobs are greater among Mexican Americans than among most other Americans. Since there are presently only two staff people there is no chance for good data gathering as yet. The Foundation believes that, of necessity, placements must be made in small numbers. Once a placement is made, it is then much easier to get other slots with the once-skeptical employers. The Foundation hopes to organize a communications network so that placements can communicate with staff and with each other on a monthly basis.

Human Resources Development Institute

2310 Cass Avenue
Detroit, Michigan 48201
313-961-4705
(Mary Ruiz)

The Human Resources Development Institute, organized by the AFL-CIO in 1968 to combat discrimination against minorities has, in the past 1½ years, turned its attention to the placement of women in non-traditional and apprenticeable jobs as well. The institute is funded by National Programs funds from CETA. Member unions provide in-kind services. HRDI is now in 54 cities and tries to have membership on the local CETA planning councils in these cities. This year for the first time the HRDI staff is collecting "women in non-traditional jobs" as a separate statistic; and it has selected several cities to spearhead pilot projects in non-traditional job development and training. The statistics show only 22 women placed in non-traditional jobs in 1975 and 25 in 1976. The total since the inception of HRDI is 243 women. HRDI's first program specifically for women is in Detroit and involves the training of 15 women as truck drivers. Funds in support of this are partly from the local CETA sponsor. Women must meet the CETA poverty criteria and have good driving records. Twelve of the fifteen women are minority; 80-85% are on public assistance. An 8-week training program will be administered.

Minority Women's Employment Program

40 Marietta Street, N.W.
Suite 808
Atlanta, Georgia 30303
404-681-0001
(Paulette Norvell)

This is a subsidiary of the Recruitment and Training Program. Until 1976, it had worked exclusively with black female college graduates, placing them in middle level positions in industry in Atlanta. This year, however, it has started a program promoting low income women in blue collar work. It is a pilot program, supported by Atlanta CETA funds, to experiment with the transfer of its techniques to low income women. So far it has made 55 placements (75% non-traditional; 25% traditional). Placements are mostly in the same industries with which MWEP had already dealt at a different level. Sample jobs are maintenance staff supervisor, boiler fireperson, food packer, shipping and warehouse clerk, mechanic trainees. 70% of trainees are heads of household; 75-85% were unemployed or severely under-employed. Most trainees are high school graduates. Their average age is 26 years. Counseling sessions include seminars for "first and only" placements to share problems with each other; aid in finding supportive services; test tutoring if needed; individual job readiness; work with communication skills and introducing applicants to job options. MWEP feels this was a hard idea to sell to the local CETA sponsor, since it was a "counseling" rather than a "training" program.

Women's Center for Educational and Career Advancement

198 Broadway, Suite 201
New York, New York 10038
212-964-8934
(Helen Rachlin)

This program is sponsored by the National Council of Negro Women. It is a pilot program funded by HEW's FIPSE program which enrolls minority women from mostly clerical jobs in a program sponsored by Pace University. Participants receive a 2½-year Associate Degree in business education and liberal arts, utilizing funds from the tuition reimbursement plans of many large corporations located in New York City. The program also has a Center for low income and minority women to take part in noontime programs, workshops, and job counseling. Its program goals are the advancement of minority women into middle level positions (managerial, executive secretarial, sales representative, etc.). It has 65 enrolled and so far has no graduates, since the program began in 1974. The program director says they could easily enroll 2 or 3 times as many women if they had more funds.

Wider Opportunities for Women (WOW)

1649 K Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20006
202-638-4868
(Diane Talbert; Andrea Cleaves)

Wider Opportunities for Women has two programs.

1. Its CETA program, financed by local CETA funds, has placed 112 women since January 1975 in non-traditional jobs in the D.C. area. These are not apprenticeships. Jobs range from appliance repair work to dental technician training to sewage treatment work. WOW prefers to place in a group but often settles for one or two per industry. Its orientation is four weeks long, and its participants are somewhat more disadvantaged than are those of other programs discussed. The program tries to get its participants to sixth grade reading and math skill levels. Therefore it trains in basic skills and general coping advice (consumer, budgeting, etc.) as well as counseling to raise aspirations. Participants are placed at companies for training on the understanding that the company will then hire about 50% of those trained. The other half are placed elsewhere by WOW. Retention rate figures seem excellent, says the program director, though they have not been exactly tabulated as yet. All new jobs pay at least $3.50/hour. WOW is compiling a data bank on apprenticeship opportunities in the Washington area.

2. Supported Work Program for Women Offenders, financed by the Law Enforcement Assistance Act and private foundations, has 80 women in non-traditional occupations. Average income over last job held has doubled by the end of the program (has gone from $2 to $4). The median age is 27. The average level of education is through

the 11th grade. There are no exact retention rate figures yet; though the program seems to have been successful to date.

Brotherhood of Railroad and Airline Clerks (BRAC)

6300 River Road
Rosemont, Illinois 60018
312-692-2007
(Roland Forbes)

This union ran a program in St. Louis with funding from the WIN Program, to train minorities and females as railroad yard clerks. The program trained 330 people and placed 43% of enrollees (at $3.67/hour as against $2.42/hour for control WIN traditional placements). The program was 81% minority and 86% female. WIN has now given the program to CETA, since it is no longer a pilot project. BRAC has recently undertaken another program to get other unions involved in a pre-apprenticeship program, giving basic training in railroading to up to 20 women. Program statistics are not yet available.

Other programs of note:

Though programs are springing up in many places now, these are some of the more noteworthy:

Bay Area Construction Opportunities Program (San Francisco, California)

Female Job Placement Program (Chattanooga, Tennessee)

International Union of Electric Workers (CETA contract: upgrading women)

International Union of Graphic Arts (CETA contract: upgrading women)

Kansas City Builders and Training Center

Mechanica (Seattle, Washington)

Step-up Program for Ex-Offenders (Norfolk, Virginia)

VERA Program for Women Offenders: Supported Work Program, New York City

WAGES (Memphis, Tennessee)

Women in Skilled Trades (Toledo, Ohio)

STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF NON-TRADITIONAL PROGRAMS

Source of Funds	City	Occupations	Average Age	Average Educational Level	% Minority	# Placed	Retention Rate	Job Preparation	Post-Placement Support	Before/After Wages	Ideal Personality	Typical Life Position
Women in Apprenticeship												
Natl. Prog. DOL	Wisconsin	Indust. & Trade Appren.	31 median	----	----	About 141	----		X			
Better Jobs for Women												
Natl. Prog. DOL	Denver	Indust., Mech., Tech., Constr.	About 30	HS Grad.	50%	319	80%	Individualized	X	100% or more incr.	No Single Type	Realize have to work all lives
Advocates for Women												
Natl. Prog. DOL	San Francisco	Appr. & Blue Collar	"Been in job market"	All Levels	"Not enough"	80	70-75%	Counseling, Tutoring	Fellow Job-Holders	----	Physically active; Sense of individ. strength	----
LEAP: National Urban League												
Natl. Prog. DOL	15 cities	Appren. & Indust.	About 25	All Levels	Many Whites	800	"Very high"	Individualized	X	----	Worked before, adventuresome, stamina	Family Responsibilities

STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF NON-TRADITIONAL PROGRAMS (Continued)

Source of Funds	City	Occupations	Average Age	Average Educational Level	% Minority	# Placed	Retention Rate	Job Preparation	Post-Placement Support	Before/After Wages	Ideal Personality	Typical Life Position
RTP												
DOL-Ofc. of Natl. Progs.	Boston, N.Y., Cleveland, Evansville	Constr. Indust. Prof.	20-26	HS or GED Requir.	96%	445 (87%)	85-90%	Individualized Tutoring & Counseling	Rap Sessions			
Mexican-American Foundation												
DOL-Ofc. of Natl. Progs.	Los Angeles	Apprenticeship & Other	20-26	HS Graduate or GED	75% Spanish	32 + 7 indentured to building trade		Basic Skills Training & Counseling & Demonstrations	Hoping to get this further organized	50% to 100% increase	"Realistic & not afraid"	
HRDI -- Detroit												
Local CETA	Detroit	Truck drivers	Over 21	No Requirement	80%	Expect all		8-Wk. Intensive (Truck driving)			"A good driver"	80-85% on Welfare
MWEP												
Local CETA	Atlanta	Indust. Blue Collar (new for MWEP)	26	HS	Most	41	90%	Individualized		After: $3.75 to $8.50/hour		70% are female family heads

STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF NON-TRADITIONAL PROGRAMS (Continued)

Source of Funds	City	Occupations	Average Age	Average Educational Level	% Minority	# Placed	Retention Rate	Job Preparation	Post-Placement Support	Before/ After Wages	Ideal Personality	Typical Life Position
Women's Center, N. Y.												
HEW: FIPSE	N. Y.	Managerial, Sales Rep., Exec. Secy.		HS	Almost All	65 enrolled, still in college	----	----	2½ Yrs. AA Degree			"Has been around"
WOW												
CETA & LEAA	Washington, D.C.	Blue Collar & Indust. Apprenticeships	30-CETA 25-LEAA	6th Grade Reading & Math Skills	Almost 100%	112-CETA 80-LEAA	"Seems high"	4-Wk. Job Readiness	Extensive (both on & off-site)	At least double	Mature; doesn't mind dirt; good physical endurance	CETA: head of household LEAA: wants to change life style
BRAC												
WIN/ CETA	St. Louis	RR Yard Clerks			81%	43% of Trainees		Basic RR Training		$2.42 to $3.67/ hour	"Doesn't mind a rat up her pant legs"	

APPENDIX B

Appendix B-1

Selected Budget Data--Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education

Federal funds for BOAE:

1962: $262 million(1)
1972: $464 million
1976: $617 million
est. 1977: $812.5 million
auth. 1978: $ 1 billion

Federal funds for Research (BOAE):

1974: $9 million

Projects which significantly targeted on low income women (1974):

New careers for women	$333,108
Building new career ladders in clerical occupations	111,409
Operation COPE (family learning center)	145,669
Assessing and field testing career planning and development approaches for adults, minorities and women	100,000
Research designed to facilitate, improve and develop cooperative vocational education programs and affirmative action/EEO	31,800
Non-traditional vocational education programs for women	110,000
TOTAL:	$831,986
Per cent of research budget targeted on low income women (1974)	9.2%

1975 budget: $9 million

Projects which significantly targeted on low income women (1975):

Participation of women in nontraditional occupations	$ 69,977
Testing of selected strategies to eliminate sex bias in vocational education programs.	59,988
TOTAL:	$129,965
Per cent of research budget targeted on low income women (1975)	1.4%

1976 budget: $9 million

Projects which significantly targeted on low income women (1976):

Special vocational education needs of women $ 72,552

1. Years are fiscal years.

Appendix B-2

Selected Budget Data--Women's Educational Equity Act

A listing of grants for Fiscal Year 1976 which will have major impact on low income women 1

Rural Educators Elementary/Secondary Levels	$ 93,325
Scientific/Technical Field Entry Curricular/Career Model	43,265
Apprenticeship Training Entry Advanced Career Preparation	194,764
Women Offenders/Minorities/others Career Development Model	91,644
Expanding Career Options Rural Counselors/Administrators	89,849
Rural High School Women Career Entry	144,943
Mature Women/Diverse Cultures Employment Awareness/Urban/Rural	84,820
Indian Women and Others Leadership Training	149,364
Pretrial Intervention Program Job Options for Women	85,340
Comprehensive Employment Training Disadvantaged Adults	74,947
Statewide Public TV Broadcasts Mid/lower Socioeconomic Levels	123,180
Technological Education Basic Concepts/Career Options	13,107
Community Teen/Career Training 600 Minority Students Involved	14,996
Women Offenders Pre-Trial/Sentenced County Sheriffs/Educational Services	13,882
Paraprofessional Counselor Training Community-Based Persons	14,987
TOTAL:	$1,232,413

Development of materials to meet training needs of women offenders from correctional institutions	$ 49,492
Analysis of the relation of vocational education to women's entry and retention in apprenticeship programs	62,000
TOTAL:	$184,044
Per cent of research budget targeted on low income women (1976)	2.0%
Per cent of fy 1974, 1975 and 1976 research budgets targeted on low income women (or $1,145,995 out of $27,000,000)	4.2%

Federal funds for Demonstration (BOAE):

fiscal year 1976: $8 million

Per cent of 1976 budget targeted on low income girls or women:

Demonstration funds limited to "young people" and not particularly low income. However, the elimination of sex-stereotyping in heavily funded Experience-Based Career Education Program will impact on low income girls to an undetermined extent ($6,200,000.)

or (77.5%)

Percent of total WEEA grants budget targeted on low income women (fiscal year 1976): 26.5%

[1]This is a rough approximation only, since many programs mentioned here will affect others besides low income women, and many grants not mentioned will have some effect on at least some low income women.

Appendix B-3

Selected Budget Data --National Institute of Education

Federal funds for NIE:

$106.8 million	- fiscal year '73
75.7 million	- fy '74
69.9 million	- fy '75
70.0 million	- fy '76
90.0 million	- projected fy '77
90.0 million	- projected fy '78
$502.4 million	TOTAL

NIE funds, expended and planned, targeted on low income and/or minority women (1973-78):(1)

Home/Community Based Career Education.....	$2,578,819
Expectancies of Women and Minorities.....	70,795
Development of Career Awareness in Young Children.....	56,108
Television series to expand the horizons of children beyond stereotyped roles in making career choices.....	3,333,514
Study of Massachusetts Law, Women, and Vocational Education.....	69,110
Women's Research Program conferences on minority women (beginning a series of studies).	200,000
Films on sex role stereotyping of career choices for (low income) girls and women.....	238,000
Research on blue collar women.....	581,000
Career development for minority women.....	1,000,000
Impact of affirmative action.....	300,000
Study of adult attrition in education programs.	300,000
TOTAL:	$8,727,346
Per cent of total NIE budget (expended and projected) targeted on low income and/or minority women.....	1.7%

1. Programs dealing with middle class or professional minority women were excluded. Programs which dealt with more than just the target population were included if they had a component which focused on low income or minority girls or women.

Appendix B-4

Selected Budget Data -- Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education

Federal Funds for FIPSE:

fiscal year 1976: $11.5 million

FIPSE funds targeted on low income and/or minority women (fy 1976):[1]

Center for Open Learning, Demopolis, Alabama....	$ 85,200
Alpha Phi Alpha Education Foundation, Pine Bluff, Arkansas.....	14,143
College for Human Services, New York City.....	150,000
High School College Internship Program, D.C. Public Schools.....	49,294
Federation of Southern Cooperatives, Epes, Alabama.....	35,000
Miles College, Eutaw, Alabama.....	85,000
National Council of Negro Women, New York City..	77,769
Pepperdine University, Los Angeles, California..	104,074
Women's Re-entry Program, San Jose City College, San Jose, California.....	57,312
Seattle Central Community College.....	80,092
Staten Island Community College with SUNY - Stony Brook, Staten Island, New York.....	47,289
Women's Inner City Educational Resource Service Center (WINNERS), Boston, Massachusetts.....	155,000
Cooperating Raleigh Colleges.....	42,576
Syracuse University Regional Learning Service...	69,000
Educational Testing Service (Domestic and Volunteer Competence).....	58,970
TOTAL:	$1,110,719

Percent of total FIPSE budget targeted on low income women (fiscal year 1976): 9.7%

[1] Very few of these programs are actually wholly targeted on low income women. Many have impact on disadvantaged men as well, and some of those designed for women are for non-disadvantaged minorities. Thus, this list is no more than a crude estimate. It includes both more and less than it should. On the other hand, the list excludes other programs which, though not mainly focused on low income women, have benefitted them to some degree.

Appendix B-5

Selected Budget Data -- Work Incentive Program[1]

Federal Funds for WIN:

fiscal year 1975:	$350 million	- TOTAL
	222 million	- employment and training activities
	89 million	- on-the-job training and public service employment
	59.4 mill.	- placement activities
	127 million	- child care and supportive services

1. WIN At Work: Sixth Annual Report to the Congress, March 1976, p. 21.

Appendix B-6

Selected Budget Data -- Comprehensive Employment and Training Act

Appropriations to CETA for its first year of operation:

Title I --	$1.580 billion
Title II --	.770 billion
Title VI --	.875 billion
TOTAL:	$3.225 billion (1)

1. Employment and Training Report of the President, June 1976, p. 89.

Appendix C

Appendix C-1

Glossary of Terms

ABE	Adult (Basic Education, in Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
AFDC	Aid to Families with Dependent Children (popularly called welfare)
AOP	Apprenticeship Outreach Program in Office of National Programs, Employment and Training Administration, Department of Labor
BAT	Bureau of Apprenticeship and Training, Employment and Training Administration, Department of Labor
BOAE	Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education in Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
CCRVE	Coordinating Committee on Research in Vocational Education, a new committee established under the new Education Amendments of 1976
CETA	Comprehensive Employment and Training Act, passed in December 1973 to coordinate and decentralize many of the old manpower programs. Administrative responsibility for the Act was laid principally on the Employment and Training Administration, Department of Labor.
CLMS	Continuous Longitudinal Manpower Survey (an independent monitor of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act for Department of Labor
CLUW	Coalition of Labor Union Women
CRC	U.S. Civil Rights Commission
DOL	U.S. Department of Labor
EEG	Education Equity Group, National Institute of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
ERIC	Education Resources Information Center (a series of clearinghouses for dissemination of research), National Institute of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare.
ETA	Employment and Training Administration (which administers the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act and other manpower programs), and used to be called the Manpower Administration), Department of Labor

EWG	Education and Work Group, National Institute of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
FIPSE	Fund for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
FSES	Federal-State Employment Service (formerly the U.S. Employment Service), coordinator of 50 state employment services, Department of Labor
HEW	U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare
Job Corps	Title IV of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act. Program (training low income youth in live-in training facilities
MA	Manpower Administration (no longer in existence under that name. New name is Employment and Training Administration)
NCES	National Center for Education Statistics, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
NIE	National Institute of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
NOICC	National Occupational Information Coordinating Committee (newly created by the Education Amendments of 1976)
OCE	Office of Career Education, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
OCR	Office of Civil Rights, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
OE	U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
OJT	On-the-job training (a system of incentives for private industry to hire and train the disadvantaged), Office of National Programs, Department of Labor
ONP	Office of National Programs (Title III of Comprehensive Employment and Training Act), Department of Labor
Prime Sponsor	A local governmental entity organized to receive and distribute federal manpower funds. It may be a city or county of more than 100,000, a consortium of a city and its surrounding counties, or "balance of states" (those parts of a state not already organized as a prime sponsor).
SACRRW	Secretary's Advisory Committee on the Rights and Responsibilities of Women, Department of Health, Education and Welfare

SOICC	State Occupational Information Coordinating Committee (newly created by the Education Amendments of 1976)
TAG	Technical Assistance Guide (prepared by Employment and Training Administration for the detailed guidance of prime sponsors on implementation of a particular policy directive)
Title I	The first and major title of Comprehensive Employment and Training Act for the distribution of manpower funds
Title IX	A title of the Education Amendments of 1972, which prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex in all educational institutions receiving federal funds. Administered by Department of Health, Education and Welfare
VTE	Division of Vocational and Technical Education, Bureau of Occupational and Adult Education, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
WEEA	Women's Educational Equity Act Program staff, Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare
WIN	Work Incentive Program (established for training and employment of Aid to Families with Dependent Children parents)
WIN II	The Work Incentive Program after the 1971 amendments, placing more emphasis on employment, less on training
WRP	Women's Research Program, Education Equity Group, National Institute of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare

Appendix C-2

Explanation of Vocational-Technical Education Categories

Enrollments-1974
Office of Civil Rights Survey of
Postsecondary Area Vocational-Technical Schools[1]

Agricultural-Business Occupations

Agricultural Production
Agricultural Supplies/Service
Agricultural Mechanics
Agricultural Products
Ornamental Horticulture
Agricultural Resources
Forestry
Agricultural, Other

Marketing and Distribution Occupations

Advertising Services
Apparel and Accessories
Automotive
Finance and Credit
Floristry
Food Distribution
Food Services
General Merchandise
Hotel and Lodging
Insurance
Personal Services
Real Estate
Recreation and tourism
Transportation
Retail Trade, Other
Wholesale Trade, Other
Distributive Education, Other

Health Occupations

Dental Assisting
Dental Hygiene
Dental Laboratory Technology
Dental, Other
Cytology (Cytotechnology)

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[1]Excludes New York and Pennsylvania

Source: CynnKay NCES 245-8340

Health Occupations (continued)

Histology
Medical Lab Assisting
Medical Lab Technology, Other
Nursing
Practical (Vocational) Nursing
Nursing Assistance (Aid)
Nursing, Other
Occupation Therapy
Physical Therapy
Rehabilitation, Other
Radiologic Technician (X-Ray)
Nuclear Medical Technology
Radiologic, Other
Ophthalmic
Environmental Health
Mental Health Technology
Electroencephalograph Technician
Electrocardiograph Technician
Inhalation Therapy
Medical Assistant
Community Health Aid
Mortuary Science
Miscellaneous Health Occupations, Other

Home Economics

Homemaking, Personal, Home and Family
Child Development
Clothing and Textiles
Consumer Education
Family Relations
Foods and Nutrition
Home Management
Housing and Home Furnishing
Homemaking, Other
Home Economics: Occupation Preparation
Care and Guidance of Children
Clothing Management, Production and Service
Food Management, Production and Service
Home Furnishing, Equipment and Service
Institution and Home Management

Business and Office Occupations

Accounting and Computing Occupations
Business Data Processing
Filing, Office Machines, Clerk
Information Communications
Materials Support Occupations

Business and Office Occupations (continued)

Personnel, Training and Related
Steno, Secretarial and Related
Supervisory and Administrative Management Occupations
Typing and Related Occupations
Office Occupations, Other

Technical Occupations

Aeronautical Technology
Agricultural Technology
Architectural Technology
Automotive Technology
Chemical Technology
Civil Technology
Electrical Technology
Electronic Technology
Electromechanical Technology
Environmental Control
Industrial Technology
Instrumental Technology
Mechanical Technology
Metallurgical Technology
Nuclear Technology
Petroleum Technology
Scientific Data Processing
Agricultural-Related Technology
Health-Related Technology
Office-Related Technology
Home Economics-Related Technology
Commercial Pilot Training
Fire and Fire Safety Technology
Forestry Technology
Oceanographic Technology
Police Science Technology
Miscellaneous Technical Education, Other
Air Pollution Technology
Water and Waste Water Technology

Trade and Industrial Occupations

Air Conditioning, Installation and Repair
Appliance Repair
Body and Fender Repair
Auto Mechanic
Auto Specialization Repair
Automotive Services, Other
Aircraft Maintenance
Aircraft Operations
Ground Operations
Blueprint Reading

Trade and Industrial Occupations (continued)

Business Machine Maintenance
Commercial Art Occupations
Commercial Fishery Occupations
Commercial Photography Occupations
Carpentry, Construction
Heavy Equipment Maintenance Operators
Masonry
Plumbing and Pipefitting
Drywall Installation
Construction and Maintenance Trades, Other
Custodial Services
Diesel Mechanic
Drafting Occupations
Electrical Occupations
Electronic Occupations
Radio and Television
Fabric Maintenance Services
Foreman, Supervision and Management Development
Graphic Arts Occupations
Instrument Maintenance and Repair Occupations
Maritime Occupations
Metalworking Occupations
Machine Shop
Machine Tool Operation
Welding and Cutting
Tool and Die Making
Metallurgy Occupations
Barbering
Cosmetology
Personal Services, Other
Plastics Occupations
Fireman Training
Law Enforcement Training
Public Service Occupations, Others
Quantity Food Occupations
Refrigeration
Small Engine Repair Internal
Textile Production and Fabrication
Leatherworking
Upholstering
Woodworking Occupations
Trade and Industrial Occupations

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